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ABSTRACT

Topics covered in papers presented at an international meeting on foreign language methodology include the following: how to sort out the new approaches to foreign language teaching methods; unconscious assimilation in foreign language learning; the lack of concrete answers arrived at during this meeting; methodological considerations in applying theory; scientific theory versus educational theory; communicative language teaching; methods, approaches, principles and practices; discourse analysis and EFL methodology; a survey of methods and techniques of language teaching in the world; principles and practice in computer-assisted language instruction; a humanistic approach to computer-assisted vocabulary learning; the Silent Way; changing language teaching approaches; community language learning; American language studies using Suggestopedia; the feelings revival; the explorative-creative way; unorthodox approaches to foreign language methodology; modern language grammar instruction; internalizing syntactic rules by iconic mediation; the learning of French spelling by migrant children; methodology as a link between objectives and teacher personality; and learners' characteristics and individualized instruction. Four of the articles are in French. A round table report is also included. (MSE)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE 15th AIMAV COLLOQUIUM ON "NEW APPROACHES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE METHODOLOGY"

PRESENTATION:
New Ways or New Waves?

Wil Knibbeler Ph.D.,
Chairman of the colloquium

'It's a long way to new ways'

During the last two decades, new theories on efficiency in foreign language teaching have been developed by linguists and educational psychologists. Although most of these approaches have at least some elements in common, they were generated in different research centres in different places and different countries. Each approach has been disseminated by specialized centres. In spite of some discussions during meetings, the advocates of the various approaches have never actually discussed with each other the pros and cons of their theories. Moreover, although various aspects of foreign language teaching and learning, such as teaching objectives and curriculum development, have been studied intensively for a number of years now, the issue of the teacher's behaviour in the foreign language classroom has as yet never been the subject of a meeting of experts. It was for these reasons that the Department of Applied Linguistics of the University of Nijmegen, the Netherlands, and the 'Association internationale pour la recherche et la diffusion des methodes audio-visuelles et structuro-globales' (AIMAV), Brussels, Belgium, decided to organize a joint colloquium, under the name of 'The 15th AIMAV Colloquium on New Approaches in Foreign Language Methodology'. The organization of this colloquium, as well as the publishing of its Proceedings have been made possible by the financial support of UNESCO and European Cultural Foundation.

The aim of the 15th AIMAV Colloquium was to evaluate new trends in foreign language didactics through an open confrontation between the theories recently developed. By evaluating the new tendencies, the colloquium intended to provide answers to the following two questions. First, what is the scientific basis of the theories under consideration? That is: are they based upon empirical research which meets the criteria generally applied in the empirical science of education, or do they largely rely on teaching experience, common sense or a general educational philosophy? In brief, are the new tendencies only waves of short duration or do they constitute a turning-point in the history of foreign language methodology? The second question is: how can the new methods be applied on a larger scale? In other words, how long is the way to the new ways? In order to answer this question, the colloquium was to try and define the conditions necessary for an adequate implementation of the new approaches in the school systems of the different countries. For even if we are able to describe the features of the most effective teaching approach, this result would not be useful if we do not succeed in meeting the requirements for implementation on a large scale. For instance, if we have to make our teachers participate in a long in-service training programme, or if we need exceptionally gifted or experienced teachers to implement the teaching model, we had better quit this way and be more practical.

The 15th AIMAV Colloquium was attended by 125 participants coming from 25 countries on 5 continents. The list of participants is to be found at the end of this volume.

The programme of the 15th AIMAV Colloquium included 2 keynote addresses, 37 section papers, 6 workshops with demonstrations and a final panel discussion. The Proceedings presented here include the keynote addresses read by J. Fanselow and J. Brancroft, 20 selected section papers and a report of the round-table discussion, written by J. Bancroft. In addition, the reader will find an article by H. van Rijn, entitled "Reflections on the 15th AIMAV Colloquium: Why the Answers Never Came", and a contribution by W. Bleyhl entitled "Unorthodox Approaches to Foreign Language Methodology or Variations on the Theme of Foreign Language Methodology". The papers selected deal with methodological issues (St. Jakobczyk, G. Sampson, J. Nattinger, W. Edmondson and H. Nyyssönen), a review of the present situation (E. Rosseel), Computer-assisted Language Instruction (A. Vanneste, W. Decoo and J. Fox), humanistic approaches (R. Young, J. Rardin, V. Grosjean, D. Schuster, L. Machado de Andrade and W. Knibbeler), the teaching of grammar (A. Lamy, L. Engels et al. and M. Rey-von Allmen), teacher's personality (M. Maleville) and learners' characteristics (H. Niedzielski).

In the course of the Colloquium there were several workshops, namely "Transfer in Foreign Language Learning: from Practice to Theory" (K. van Esch, W. Hermans & J. de Vroomen), "Writing and Performing Jazz Chants" and "Using Music in the ESL Classroom" (C. Graham), "The Basic Lozanov Method with some Effective Additions" and "How do Excellent Foreign Language Learners do it?" (Ch. Schmid), and "Evaluating Community Language Learning" (K. Markowski).

Not included in these Proceedings are, for various reasons, the following valuable contributions: "Audio-visual Stimuli and Cognitive Learning Styles in 'Traditional' Audio-Lingual and Suggestopedic Language Classes - A Comparative Study" by M. Bayuk; The Language Laboratory as an Aid to Communicative Language Teaching" by K. Board & V. Meus; "Modular Approach to Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning" by V. Borowsky; "Older Learners and Language Education" by M. Brändle; "A Framework for Developing Thematic Materials" by E. Gray & A. Donaldson; "A Case for Creative Language Teaching" by K. Godde & L. Mignault; "Methode d'Enseignement d'une Langue Vivante par l'Action" by H. Houlmann; "The Impact of Marketing Strategies on the Spread of Foreign Language Teaching Methodologies" by M. Jirasek; "Enhancing Second Language Performance Through Strategic Interaction" by J. Lantolf & G. Salah; "Do Communicative Activities Increase Learner's Involvement?" by T. Levin, I. Milstein & E. Ohlstain; "Sprachorientierungsunterricht nach dem Paderborner Modell" by G. Lobin; "Communicative Teaching in Practice" by R. Nasr; "The Use of Videotape in the Teaching of Writing Systems" by H. van Olphen; "Problème de la Compétence Communicative en l'Apprentissage du Russe dans le Manuel pour les Lycées du Mali" by D. Traore & Z. Ievleva; "A Possible Grammar of a Phone Call in German" by J. Wilmots; "Family as Context and Agent of Teaching and Learning German: Turkish Guest-workers in the Federal Republic of Germany" by A. Yakut; and "Teaching Written Chinese to Foreigners and Native Speakers of Dialect" by B. T'sou.

We wish to thank B. Weltens and R. van Hout who assisted us in preparing the text for print.

BEYOND COMPARISON OF METHODS STUDIES

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New approaches and methods are usually described in the terms of their originators. This is true whether the descriptions refer to the theories used to support the approaches and methods or to the teacher and student activities advocated. As long as we limit ourselves to these types of descriptions precise comparisons of different approaches and methods are impossible, and the distinctive features of each are obscured.

Because developments in most fields come only after shared terms based on a conceptualization are used for descriptions, this presentation provides a framework and a set of terms that can be used to describe some of the new approaches to foreign language methodology highlighted at this colloquium.

The terms used are from an observation system called FOCUS. The observation system is based on a conceptualization of teaching in which teacher ans student communications are seen as a series of conventions or rules. the conceptualization is taken from Bellack et al. who also provided the basis unit of analysis used, the *move*.

Four types of moves are used. Communications that set the stage for subsequent behaviour and exercices such as announcements or self-directed activities such as reading silently on one's own without being told are called *structuring* moves. Those communications that set tasks or ask questions are considered *soliciting* moves. Performances of set tasks and answers to questions are *responding* moves. Communications that modify previous moves, rate them or are called forth by them are *reacting* moves. "Today we're going to work on verbs. Give me a verb. Ran. Very good." illustrate the four types of moves.

Together with the source and target of communication--the person in charge leading a drill with the whole class, one group or one student, a peer whispering to the person in the next seat or asking the person in charge a question, or a ringing bell telling everyone the class is over--the move tells us "What's happening?" At least these two characteristics of communication tell us what is happening in terms of who or what is communicating to who and what the purpose of their communication is.

The advantage of the move as a unit of analysis over the names of methods of language teaching or approaches or skills is that it is precise. If one Silent Way teacher begins class by announcing the rationale for some of the following activities--structuring--and another simply points to a rod--soliciting--while another comments on a student's new shoes--reacting--using method or approach as the unit of analysis will fail to reveal these differences.

Because we can structure, solicit, respond and react in many ways, moves are distinguished from each other on the basis of three additional characteristics of communications: the medium used--speech, print, noise, pictures, tone of voice, gestures; the way it is used--whether the mediums are taken in or produced and if produced in which one of five ways; the content communicated--personal feelings, personal & general information or procedure or the study of language or some other subject for its own sake. These three characteristics of communication answer the question "How's it being done?" and form *messages*.

A move may have from one to any number of messages. If I say "Repeat locust" the solicit contains two messages: a direction to do something and the model we are to do something with. If I say "Very good" and smile at the same time as I react to a person's performance the reaction also contains two messages. Any time more than one medium or area of content are used in different ways additional messages are noted.

Table 1 contains the basic elements of FOCUS. Though the number of characteristics noted is only five and the number of major categories averages four, since any category in any column can theoretically combine with any category in any other column the number of combinations that can be described is quite large just as a number of sentences can be formed by only a few words in each of five columns in a substitution table. In the appendix you can find examples of some of the sub-categories and items that fit them or definitions. These help illustrate the meaning of the major categories.

Because of limitations of time and space, types of messages found in selected approaches will be described in terms of only two of the three characteristics that are used to describe messages: medium and content. Each set of moves and messages will be preceded by a short description of some observed activities in each approach to help illustrate what types of communications the coding refers to. As the categories are mastered the distinctive features of the messages characteristic of each approach become clearer.

In the Silent Way, many teachers require students to say things about rods without an oral model from the teacher. Colour coded letters on charts are tapped with a pointer by the teacher and students say the words tapped that fit a pattern related to the rods. Meaning is provided with gestures by the teacher both in the setting of tasks--solicits--and during feedback to errors--in reactions. After an error, for example, teachers usually hold up their hands and point to one finger at a time to illustrate the sequence of syllables or words. Then, when the fingers are related to a particular series of words the finger that represents the word with an error is shaken by fingers from the other hand. Both after teachers solicit and before they treat errors they provide a great deal of wait time, making no effort to rush students or keep a quick pace.

Table 1 Five characteristics of communication

MOVE *			MESSAGE *	
What's being done?			*How's it being done?*	
1	2	3	4	5
Who or what is communicating to whom or what?	What is the purpose of the communication?	What mediums are used to communicate?	How are the mediums used to take in or communicate content?	What areas of content are communicated?
Source & Target	*Move Type*	*Medium* **	*Use* **	*Content* **
		linguistic	--attend (taking in mediums)	
	structuring	la aural		life
teacher to student or other		lv visual		
		lo other	--characterize	
		non-linguistic		
		na aural		
	soliciting	nv visual	--present	
		no other		procedure
			--relate	
student to teacher or student or other		*para-linguistic* pa aural		
	responding	pv visual	--reproduce	
		po other		study of language
			--set	
		silence		
	reacting			study of other areas
other to teacher or student				

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*The move, after Bellack, is the basic unit of analysis; the move is made up of one or more messages, each one containing a medium used in one way to communicate one area of content; alterations in the mediums, uses and areas of content in messages provides a great variety of each type of move.

**Appendix 1 contains examples of mediums in each subcategory; Appendix 2 contains some examples of the categories of use and content.

In most moves, the stress is on language for its own sake, in particular word order, suffixes, function words and pronunciation. Personal information is not sought nor does the teacher usually provide any.

Table 2 Some distinctive features of Silent Way (Gattegno 1976)

Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Content
t	sol	nv (rods) + lv&nv (coloured letters) + si (wait time)	study of language
s	res	la (speaking)	study of language
t	rea	pv (indicating location of error) + si (wait time) + lv&nv (point to coloured letters on chart)	study of language

In Total Physical Response, the students say nothing for a long time, but translate the words the teacher says into reactions. If a teacher says "Walk to the bank", for example, students are expected to move from one place to another. Then, after "Open the door" they are to mime the action. While many of the directions seem to communicate procedural types of commands, the emphasis is on the study of language for its own sake.

Table 3 Some distinctive features of Total Physical Response (Asher 1977)

Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Content
t	sol	la(commands to move about)	study of language
s	res	pv (gesturing, body language) + po (movement about the room)	study of language

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In Community Language Learning, some teachers begin the class by asking students to share personal feelings or general information. The class is in a circle and the teacher asks for the students' comments while standing outside the circle. Sometimes, the teachers speak quietly to individual students. After general or personal information and feelings are shared the language needed to express them is treated as an area of study. Teachers are expected to show warmth and support with their tone of voice and facial expressions as they restate what students say. Students often ask how to say things they want to say thus integrating study and personal feelings.

Table 4 Some distinctive features of Community Language Learning (Curran 1972)

Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Content
o	str	nv (chairs in circle) + po (position of teacher)	procedure (class set-up)
s_1	rea	la (speaking)	life (personal feelings or general information)
s_2	rea	la (speaking)	life (")
t	rea	la (speaking) + pa (supportive tone of voice) + pv (facial expressions or gestures to show support)	life (")
t	sol	la	study of language
s	res	la	study of language
s_s	sol	la	study of language + life (asking how to say what they feel compelled to say in the target language)

One feature of suggestopedia is that the students are in comfortable chairs and listening to music as the teacher speaks. Another feature is that language is not necessarily the only area of study--any subject can be spoken about by the teacher.

Table 5 Some distinctive features of Suggestopaedia (Bancroft 1983)

Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Content
o	str	na* (music) + nv (arrangement of chairs) + po (posture of students in special chairs)	procedure (routine background and organization)
t	str	la (speaking)	study of language or study other
c	rea	si (taking things in)	study of language or study other

The communicative approach supposedly emphasizes the meaning of what students say rather than the form. If that is true, then students will be communicating personal feelings or information or general knowledge, not language for its own sake. If they are communicating content of *life*, gestures and facial expressions as well as tone of voice will be employed with each move and change constantly and so a conversation at a cocktail party would be coded the same way. There are two patterns of move sequences in Table 6 because in conversations one observes introductory announcements followed by reflexive comments as well as a question and an answer followed by a series of reflexive comments.

In Jazz Chants, the language patterns to be communicated are said with a distinct rhythm or they are said as the teacher or students clap or beat a rhythm on the desk. Also, some sounds are made such as groans, cries, sighs and the "ahs" of astonishment, for example.

A quick glance at the tables shows that the moves almost all contain messages with multiple mediums, or in the case of Total Physical Response, mediums not usually considered central in language classes, gestures and movement without speech! Given recent information about brain research that confirms the fact that different parts of the brain process different mediums and that in much teaching we fail to stimulate many parts of the brain and connections between different parts such a variety of mediums is not surprising (Sagan 1977). Nor, given this fact should we be surprised that new approaches have not been generated by linguists since they tend to concentrate only on speech or print in their work.

Table 6 Some distinctive features of Communicative language teaching (Urzua 1981; Winn-Bell Olsen 1977)

Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Content
t	str	la (speaking) + pa (tone of voice) + pv (gestures and facial expressions)	life
s_1	rea	la (speaking) + pa (tone of voice) + pv (gestures and facial expressions)	life
s_2	rea	(same as above)	
	or		
t or s	sol	(same as above)	
t or s	res	(same as above)	
t or s	rea	(same as above)	
t or s	rea	(same as above)	

Table 7 Some distinctive features of Jazz Chants (Graham 1978)

Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Content
t	sol	la (speech) + nv (clapping or beat) + pa (distinct rhythm in tone of voice)	study of language
s	res	(same as teacher solicit)	

Of course, there are other critical distinctive features in each approach besides those in the tables. With a more detailed description showing how the mediums are used as well as employing subcategories of mediums and content more distinctive features could be seen. More detailed descriptions would also reveal many who consider themselves users of one approach indistinguishable from users of other approaches. This is likely, that is, if previous descriptions of the persistence of certain teaching practices are valid (Hoetker and Ahlbrand 1969).

But even the rather general descriptions in the tables are more precise than descriptions based on each orginator's sets of terms. And the use of a common language allows comparisons with the same basic elements.

Though taking communications from lessons and coding them shows how activities may vary in common terms, one could argue that such coding does nothing to provide insight into the theoretical foundations or claims of various approaches. But the same elements can in fact be used to see whether different theories are in fact translated into different teacher and student communications. By asking juries or originators of approaches to identify sections of lessons they think show particular theories being practiced and then having coders categorize and analyze the communications in these sections, the distinctive features of teacher and student communications congruent with each theory can be identified. If risk taking, exploration or economy are important, as Knibbeler has argued, for example, in the creative explorative method, then many video tapes of classes can be viewed to find excerpts that exemplify these concepts. Then, by coding the excerpts precise patterns of communications can be taught to those interested in teaching in a way congruent with the concepts.

As some distinctive features of different approaches become clearer by describing them with the same terms and as part of one framework, the two central questions raised at this colloquium can begin to be answered. Quick observations of scores of classes in public schools reveals that few of the features of the new approaches are widespread. When one considers that in North America only one M.A. teacher preparation program provides systematic preparation in Silent Way and Community Language Learning, for example, it is not surprising that one sees few features associated with these appproaches in widespread use. Teachers in North America interested in many new approaches must do the same thing as teachers in Europe. They must seek out special workshops outside the regular teacher preparation programs provided by universities. New approaches are read about and perhaps criticized in many teacher preparation programs but rarely are teachers given guided experiences in using them. Perhaps the resistance to new approaches in places where teachers are prepared is due to the fact that higher institutions of learning are similar on one level in social function to most public schools. They are set up to control change and serve to limit access to different types of positions. If everyone in public schools learned foreign languages very well how could foreign language ability be used to screen people for university admisson?

Attempts at introduction of new approaches would perhaps not cause change anyway since change is very hard to bring about. But if some features of all the new aproaches were grafted on what teachers normally do, a great deal of change might begin to occur. As some moves contained different messages, whole new chain reactions might result. For example, providing more wait time, a central feature of Silent Way, probably would increase the lenght of student responses and also raise teacher expectations of students. By not providing answers but waiting instead teachers might also see more students making educated guesses. Having students hear music as they listen to language or read silently, a feature of suggestopedia and a practice from our personal experiences outside of class where most of us listen to the radio as we read on a sofa or in a soft chair, might provide associations for students that would aid memory. "Oh, I learned that while listening to 'Ob la di'" is a possible reaction after some parts of lessons when music or songs were played. Using more noises and catchy rhythms from jazz chants and from normal conversation, given most people's interest in songs and music, might change students' listening habits and increase the time they listen to songs in the target language outside of class. Changing one characteristic of communication in one column often alters the network of communication and produces changes in other columns just as changing a musical score from the key of C to another key in some cases means only the addition of say one flat, but the sounds produce quite different effects.

Analysis of the distinctive features of new approaches, as well as any teaching actions, reminds us not only that any variations in teaching come about on the level of individual teacher and student moves and messages. Such analysis also reminds us that in the most restrictive teaching settings we are free on one level. Administrators or students may object to classes with rods, requests to sit in circles with the teacher outside, chanting or listening to music for most of the period. But a few minutesof music or a longer wait time before expecting responses for a few minutes or a few commands that require movement rather than repetition of the commands during a few minutes "left over" at the end of a lesson will be seen as a harmless aside. Yet during these few minutes all can begin to see what consequences small changes produce. As students see that longer wait time leads to longer answers and more questions on their part and as those in charge see that music produces a lot of "that was interesting" type comments the time set aside for altering some of the five characteristics of communication noted with the observation system that has been introduced can be increased. Students and administrators along with teachers will see that the addition of some content coded life often produces more student questions that are said with animation and an excited tone of voice--when the student is the source of solicits they are produced not only with words that are said--la--but with gestures--pv--and a different tone of voice--pa.

Proof of the value of new approaches--the other central question raised in the colloquium--is also more likely to come if over time we compare approaches more precisely than we have in the past. Unless we compare moves and messages, or some similar basis units in different classes we will only repeat the failures of almost all comparision of methods studies done to date. (Critique of the Pennsylvania project 1969)

By using moves and messages rather than approaches as units of analysis we shall also see that to compare strenghts we shall need to investigate more than test results of different classes. As we look at classes carefully we shall see *consequences* of different approaches. For example, in a jazz chant session of a class you will see many students tapping their feet without being told, you will see more smiles and after class you will hear students trying chants from class and making up others on their own. These consequences may not increase test scores but they surely need to be taken into account when comparing methods. But these consequences can be seen only as we observe and describe communications in classes precisely.

Finally, precise descriptions will raise questions about the value of searching for the best method or approach. For descriptions will reveal how narrow the range of communications in most classes is and how the more varied the communicatons are the greater the range of consequences. Audio lingual approaches got going with no proof of superiority as did grammar translation and the functional approach and language for specific purposes. Perhaps there are fewer questions about these approaches than about others because essentially these only contain shifts in the content being taught, not in the way the content is taught. But when one considers that in the Silent Way hundreds of students have learned to speak without ever hearing the model from their teacher, even if the approach is not better than others it certainly has raised fundamental questions about others. Unless we substitute quite different teaching conventions for those we observe frequently we can never investigate the value of what we do. Community language learning has raised fundamental questions about the tenet that materials must be graded and structured in some way since in opening classes that follow this approach students say anything they feel compelled to say.

To all those who ask for proof for the value of new approaches the simple response is another question: Where is the proof for the value of the old approaches? If nothing else, the new approaches have revealed the fallacies of many tenets that we have been accepting on faith for all too long.

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Appendix 1 — Categories of mediums with examples

One person's Classification of Mediums with Examples

LINGUISTIC

- aural
  1. Elements of words: letters, phonemes, syllables
  2. Individual words: names of objects, commands, comments, examples
  3. Vocalizations: OK, hum, uh, and other pauses, markers and fillers
  4. Words in groups: phrases, sentences, paragraphs, dialogs
- visual
  1. Printing or lettering of aural mediums 1-4 above, plus punctuation
  2. Transcribing (phonetically) of aural mediums 1-4 above
  3. Writing of aural medium 1-4 above, plus punctuation
  4. Ideograms: characters
- other
  1. Linguistic mediums that appeal to other senses: drawing a letter on a hand with a finger, letters made of sandpaper for feeling
  2. Symbolic systems: Braille, signing, Morse code

NONLINGUISTIC

- aural
  1. Noise from animals: barking, meowing, roaring, squeaking
  2. Noise from things: clapping, footsteps, ringing bell, rustling leaves, screeching wheels, ticker tape
  3. Noise from people: belch, cough, humming, whistling, to demonstrate sounds
  4. Organized "noise": chanting, music
- visual
  1. Real: clothing, darkness, food, furniture, light, live things, objects, people, rods, rooms, speech organs, things with moving parts or electric power
  2. Representational: cartoons, pictures, silent movies, sketches, snapshots, television without the sound
  3. Schematic: blank spaces, diagrams, erasing, globe, layout, map, underscoring; intonation contours
  4. Symbolic: colour on gas cylinders, cracked glass to show *fragile*, shape of a stop sign, symbols such as a % or $; logs from corporations
- other
  - Smells, temperature & other items that appeal beyond the ear and eye

PARALINGUISTIC

- aural
  - Crying, laughing, tone of voice, whimpering
  - Supra-segmentals: emphasis on a word; rising intonation in a statement
- visual
  - Facial expressions, gazing, gestures, movement of the body, posture, skin, colour, tilt of the head
- other
  - Doing things with objects, space—distance from others, touching people

SILENCE

- impli.
  - Implicit communications—students know they are to repeat when a model is given
- start
  - Start—stopping in mid-sentence expecting another to finish sentence
- wait
  - Wait time—doing nothing but waiting before or after others have communicated
- other
  - What is in our head—what we bring to the other mediums from experience (size, electronic, mechanical, distorted, natural, authentic, etc.)

From, "It's too damn tight" TESOL Quarterly Vol. 14, No. 2 June 1980
John F. Fanselow

Appendix 2 Categories of uses and content with definitions

How are the mediums used to take in or communicate content?

Use

attend--taking in mediums by silent reading, listening, smelling, touching, looking at objects or pictures

----

producing content by using mediums to

characterize--indicating items are the same or different, right or wrong; showing the size of words, using labels or producing attributes

present--stating information directly or asking questions one knows the answer to or asking exploratory questions

relate-- making inferences, developing rules, synthesizing or making any new connections

reproduce--copying, repeating what another has said or done, oral reading, dictations and other changing of one medium to another as in total physical response

set - - providing examples or models or samples or texts for other uses to be performed on

What areas of content are communicated?

Content

life--greetings and other formulas, personal feelings or information, general knowledge

procedure--administrative matters, class behaviour, naming students, teachers or others, giving direction and assigning tasks

study of language--specifying areas of language from which we get meaning such as context, dialect, type of discourse, format, functions, genres, grammar, lexis, mechanics, punctuation, register, rhetorical pattern, sound, speech production system, style, ties such as cohesion and collocation and cultural aspects

study of other areas--academic areas, hobbies, non-academic areas such as games, sports, cooking

UNCONSCIOUS ASSIMILATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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If one has occasion to peruse anthologies of 'successful' language methods, one will no doubt notice that a number of these - Asher's Total Physical Response Approach and Terrell's Natural Approach are two that immediately come to mind - are based on indirect attention, i.e. the student learns a language by doing something else, by engaging in some other activity. In the paper at hand a number of methods will be discussed which are based on what might be termed a form of indirect attention, viz. unconscious assimilation.

Unconscious assimilation plays an important role in the learning process in an era when television has altered, at least according to Marshall McLuhan, the way in which students absorb information. A number of methods based in whole or in part on unconscious assimilation have been developed in the last twenty (or, in some cases, forty) years, among them: Suggestology/Suggestopedia; Sophrology; the Tomatis Method; Soviet Hypnopedia; the Suzuki Approach. All these methods assume that the acquisition of information can occur in those states which are considered to be below the optimal level of consciousness. Whether developed in Bulgaria, Spain, France, the Soviet Union or Japan, the systems under discussion have been inspired by raja yoga or zen, as well as by philosophies more familiar to the West.

In the 1960s, a Bulgarian medical doctor, Georgi Lozanov, discovered that certain yogic techniques of physical and mental relaxation could be used to produce not only relief from pain but also improved memory and concentration. His system, Suggestology, which was originally used in medicine and psychotherapy, was subsequently applied to education - in particular, to subjects like foreign languages which require, at least initially, the memorization of large amounts of basic factual materials. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, at the Institute of Suggestology headed by Dr. Lozanov, a team of experts led by Aleko Novakov combined yoga relaxation and verbal suggestion with the direct method to produce a unique system of foreign language teaching: Suggestopedia.

It was also in the 1960s that a Colombian medical doctor then resident in Spain, Alfonso Caycedo, discovered independently of Dr. Lozanov that yogic techniques of relaxation could produce a state of analgesia and/or hypermnesia. At the Instituto Alfonso Caycedo in Barcelona, Spain, in the 1970s and now in the headquarters of the Federación Mundial de Sofrología in Bogotá, Colombia, work in Sophrology has been based on techniques derived from the ancient East in addition to Western Europe. Educators have taken from Sophrology its special voice training (Terpnos Logos) and its techniques of physical and mental relaxation (including breathing, visualization and concentration exercises) which, like those originally used in the Lozanov Method, greatly improve memory and concentration. Within the context of Sophrology, Dr. Caycedo has developed a memory training system, Entrenamiento Sofrológico de la Memoria, which is very similar to the original suggestopedic concentration/relaxation session.

In the 1950s in France, Dr. Alfred Tomatis began his research into the ear and the voice, and subsequently developed his own unique system for treating dyslexia and communication problems on the one hand, and teaching basic elements of foreign languages on the other. A medical doctor who, like Lozanov and Caycedo, has been influenced by yoga, Tomatis emphasizes the training of the ear and development of the memory through listening and repetition, as well as unconscious assimilation of, or indirect attention to, programme materials. Two of Tomatis' important discoveries include the 'electronic ear', a special machine placed between the earphones and the tape recorder, which machine retrains the subject's ear to hear foreign language sounds in the manner of the appropriate native speaker, and 'filtered' music which gradually reproduces the high-frequency sound conditions of the mother's womb and which is used in the passive phase of Tomatis' programmes for the treatment of dyslexia and communication problems.

Soviet hypnopedia (or sleep-learning) is based om the hypothesis that learning (i.e. rote learning) can occur in a state of reduced conscious awareness, provided that the appropriate materials have already been presented to the students when they are in a wide-wake and fully alert state. Soviet hypnopedia makes use of the period of paradoxical (or light) sleep that usually occurs just as one is falling into a deep sleep after going to bed and just before one awakens in the morning. During a typical hypnopedic session, 'familiar' lesson material (foreign language vocabulary, for example) is presented to the students in the form of paired associates and repetition, rhythm and intonation (or tone of voice) are used as aids to memorization.

The Talent Education Method of Shinichi Suzuki, which had its origins in Japan some forty years ago, is principally used for the teaching of music in North America, although it has been used in Japan to teach academic subjects - mathematics, Japanese and English, for example. Suzuki based his music method in the way children learn their mother tongue - a method in which speaking precedes reading, pronunciation is developed through listening and individual words and phrases are repeated over and over until they are learned and absorbed. In the conception of his approach, he was very much influenced by Japanese zen. The Suzuki method, in which music is considered to be a kind of language, emphasizes the training of the ear and the development of memory through listening and repetition. Most importantly, it promotes direct attention to, and/or unconscious absorption of lesson materials while the pupils are in a relaxed state or in a state of light sleep. Tape recordings of the music are made with several repetitions on the tape, or use is made of 'endless' cassettes that repeat continuously. The piece which is to be learned is played beforehand to the pupil every day by means of these tape recordings, when the child is engaged in some other activity (games, drawing, for example) or when the child lies in bed at night and and is beginning to fall asleep.

Of the five methods under discussion, Suggestopedia, the Tomatis Method, Sophrology and the Suzuki Approach emphasize the teacher's authority and sympathetic attitude, the special pact of confidence between teacher and student, the role of the physical, social and/or family environment and the untapped potential of the learner. All five methods stress the importance of intonation or tone of voice as well as rhythm in the presentation of lesson materials. Suggestopedia, the Tomatis Method and Suzuki's Talent Education Method favour the use of baroque or classical music, especially that for violin, as a memory-training or linguistic-structuring device.Tomatis' research, in particular, has shown that the violin, the musical instrument with the most high frequencies, reproduces the soothing atmosphere of the mother's womb on the one hand, and stimulates the cortex on the other. Suggestopedia, the Tomatis Method, the Suzuki Approach and Sophrology, in accordance with modern holistic education on the one hand and the ancient discipline of yoga on the other, aim to develop the whole personality of the individual in a pleasant and positive learning environment.

All five methods in question promote indirect attention to and/or unconscious absorption of lesson materials while the students are in a relaxed state. Suggestopedia, the Tomatis Method, Soviet hypnopedia and Sophrology comprise both an active and a passive phase or session - an active phase for outward concentration on the material and a passive session for inner meditation on the material - following the precepts of yoga - while the students are in the so-called alpha state, a state of relaxed alertness. While Sophrology and the Tomatis Method begin the special memory-training session with a passive phase, Suggestopedia and Soviet hypnopedia begin with an active one. The Suzuki Approach favours what may be termed a passive phase, during which the musical piece to be memorized is played to the pupil as he or she is falling asleep, before an active one of reading the music or actually playing the piece.

As developed by Aleko Novakov at the Institute of Suggestology, the original suggestopedic language class featured a relaxation session for unconscious assimilation of the lesson material. This session was divided into two parts, active and passive, with each part comprising twenty minutes, the ideal meditation period in yoga. During the active part, the teacher presented the appropriate foreign-language words or phrases with three different yogic intonations - declarative, whisper, loud command - while the students looked at the dialogue on the printed page and repeated to themselves (using inner speech) the appropriate foreign words and phrases. During the passive part, the teacher read the language dialogue a second time, but now in a soft, persuasive voice over a background of slow movements for baroque *concerti grossi* while the students, with eyes closed, meditated on the text. In the two parts of the session, the material was presented rhythmically on an eight-second cycle: two seconds - translation; four seconds - foreign language phrase; two seconds - pause. The students were trained to breathe deeply and rhythmically in accordance with the teacher's voice and/or the baroque slow movements. According to Bulgarian statistics, Suggestopedia speeds up (or speeded up) learning five to fifty times.

While Suggestopedia is ideally suited to rote memorization of basic factual materials and is what one might term 'teacher- directed', the Sophrology memory-training system is designed to improve the memory in a global sense and is what one may call 'inner-directed'. Caycedo's method is based on EFARP - evocation, fixation, association, repetition, presentation. For training the memory, important 'body' elements are: abdominal respiration and coordination of breathing with thought or image; proper cerebral circulation (as aided, for example, by the relaxation of the neck muscles); correct posture(s). A standing posture is used for relaxation exercises; two seated postures are used for memory training. An inclined seated posture, with eyes closed, corresponds to the passive session in Suggestopedia and is used for evocation, fixation and association. A modified zen posture, with back straight up and eyes open, knees bent and feet under the chair, is used for repetition and/or organization and corresponds to the active session in Suggestopedia. In Sophrology, in contrast to Suggestopedia, one normally moves from a deeper level of consciousness to a relaxed but nonetheless fully alert state. Statistics proving the success of the Sophrology memory-training programme tend to be personal in nature.

The Tomatis programme consists of two major parts: the passive phase (listening training), during which the child listens to sounds, and the active phase (audio-vocal training) which requires the subject's active and vocal participation. Employed throughout much of the programme is the special electronic equipment designed by Tomatis and, in particular, the 'electronic ear'.

During the first (or passive) phase, the child receives auditory stimulation through the earphones which include a vibrating device placed on the forehead. Music is used in the initial stages of a 'retour sonique' - a return to the high-frequency sound conditions of the mother's womb. The child listens to Mozart's symphonies or violin concerti - for Tomatis, Mozart is *the* universal composer, although such baroque composers as Vivaldi are also used. At the first, the music is unfiltered but, as the thirty-five minute sessions proceed, the music becomes more and more filtered so that, finally, only those frequencies above 8,000 Hertz are present in the musical piece.

With session fifteen, the child begins listening to a recording of the mother's voice, at first in a very filtered form. The mother's voice is perceived as one perceived it in the womb. From sessions fifteen through fifty, in the various stages of what is called an 'accouchement sonique' (sonic birth), the maternal voice becomes less filtered as the missing frequencies are gradually reintroduced. In the same way as a baby progressively hears during the ten days after birth in his evolution from the liquid world of the foetal ear to the sound world of air, one begins to hear a thin voice, then a more complete voice, and finally the full voice of the mother reading a story. The mother undergoes voice training, if necessary, in order to learn to position her voice correctly and the reading proper is done under the 'electronic ear' to improve the timbre of the voice.

The purpose of the active training phase in the Tomatis Method is to help the child use his new listening ability properly. During this phase, the child is asked to listen to tapes of different kinds (songs, words, sentences, for example) while under the 'electronic ear' and to reproduce vocally what he hears into a microphone. Singing is particularly favoured as a memory-training and linguistic-structuring device. The reproduced sound is automatically adjusted by the electronic equipment so that the child hears his or her voice correctly. During the audio-vocal training period, a balance system permits the sounds to be focussed progressively on the right ear (i.e. the left hemisphere of the brain) which Tomatis believes is the key to proper listening. The child is encouraged to read aloud, both during the sessions and at home. This active phase continues through a series of sessions and control interviews until a combination of the results of the listening tests, observations, reading tests and interviews signals an end to he programme. (One might add that, in the Tomatis Centres, the system of active/phases is applied to the learning of the basic elements of a foreign language.) Although independent Belgian and Canadian studies have been conducted which prove the effectiveness of the Tomatis Method, statistics issued by the various Tomatis Centre tend towards the personal.

As initiated and developed in the Soviet Union by such researchers as A.M. Svyadoshch in Leningrad and L.A. Bliznitchenko in Kiev, hypnopedia or sleep-learning is intended to be used in conjunction with regular daytime classes in such academic subjects as foreign languages. During the hypnopedic sessions, students in groups of twelve or so hear, repeated over and over (but in a slow, rhythmic pattern and with a special intonation), factual elements such as paired associates of foreign language vocabulary that they have already studied in class. In the Soviet Union, sleep-learning is used for the learning (or rather the 'over-learning') of 'familiar' material. In addition to hearing the material repeated some ten to twelve times during a period of some thirty to fifty minutes at night just before falling into a deep sleep and for some thirty minutes in the morning just before fully awakening, students in Soviet hypnopedic experiments are required (in what may be termed an 'active' session) to listen to, read, listen to again and loudly repeat the appropriate sleep-learning programme in a fully awake state, before the dormitory lights are turned out. In *Learning and Sleep*, F. Rubin discusses the larger degrees of retention in vocabulary and learning provided by Soviet hypnopedia and cites experiments in German, for example, in which two years' work was accomplished in two months.

The Suzuki Approach to music education (the so-called mother-tongue method) begins with listening and the development of the ear and memory. Ideally, according to Suzuki, music training should begin at home from the moment of the child's birth. A short masterpiece by one of the great composers is selected and that one selection is played every day for the baby. Baroque compositions are often used because of their clear rhythmic structures, uncomplicated harmonies and/or sustained melodies. After about five months, the baby will have 'learned' (i.e. absorbed) the selection; at the point, another selection is added. The baby now hears two pieces every day. Suzuki stresses that, in addition to soothing the baby, listening to good music motivates the child to want to play that music later on, develops his musical memory and improves his future ability to play by ear.

Once the child's ear for music has been developed through repetitive listening, he or she is ready to begin to play a given instrument (say, violin, piano or cello). Suzuki pupils usually begin lessons at the age of three or four. In the lessons, tone production and posture are emphasized; rhythmic games are used; relaxation, breathing and visualization exercises may be included. Once the child has begun his music lessons (both private and group), home practice plays an important role, and regular practice is an important part of the Suzuki method. The development of the ear continues to be emphasized, however. The piece which is to be learned should always be played beforehand to the pupil every day by means of good quality records or tape recordings; the piece is memorized in advance and then the child is taught to play it. The pupil should also continue to listen to the appropriate records or tapes while he is learning the piece.

While listening to the music being played, the child can be engaged in some other activity. Through indirect attention (and as with television advertising), the child easily absorbs the musical sounds at an unconscious level. Some parents prefer to play recordings as the child lies in bed at night. Corresponding to hypnopedia, the child absorbs the musical structures while he is falling asleep or while he is in a state of light sleep.

Suzuki students are universally recognized for the high quality of their individual or group concert performances. In such subjects as the Japanese language, Suzuki students in Japan are said to be able to memorize, for example, 170 - 180 *haiku* in one year, which poems they are able to recite upon request.

Benson & Greaves of Glendon College, York University (Toronto) have been comparing Suzuki programmes and French immersion programmes for a number of years. In their opinion (and as a result of their research), Suzuki and French immersion programmes owe their success to the following:

1. emphasis on performance;
2. non-threatening group atmosphere;
3. language (or the language of music) is a natural experience;
4. a bilingual teacher or a 'music-making' mother provides support for the child and shows that it is natural to be bilingual or musical;
5. constant feedback regarding achievement in French or music;
6. emphasis on learning (as opposed to teaching); French or music is the medium of instruction and the learning of French or music is a holistic process;
7. teacher's expectations are positive; student motivation and persistence are built up;
8. group identity;
9. parental support;
10. Suzuki and immersion programmes are 'good for you', i.e. they contribute to personal growth and satisfaction.

It might be added that indirect attention is a feature of both Suzuki programmes and French immersion programmes; the child listens to music or learns French while engaged in other activities.

Objective data regarding the effectiveness of methods of accelerated learning have been provided by the Americans. (In SALT experiments in the United States, for example, adaptations of Suggestopedia have speeded up learning and improved retention by 2.5 to 3 times.) It could be said that the success of the methods under discussion depends on the fact that learning takes place at two levels of consciousness: the wide-awake (beta) level and the relaxed (alpha) level. While the order of the active/passive phases or sessions does not seem to be especially important, what appears significant for effective or accelerated learning is that there should be an alternation, a going back and forth, between these two levels of consciousness. Since the younger generation picks up most of its information from watching television - and while in a relaxed state - it might be said, in conclusion, that the most important aspect of all these 'modern' methods, regardless of their country of origin, is that they promote, in whole or in part, unconscious assimilation of the materials to be learned, while enhancing the student's ability to learn.

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REFLECTIONS ON THE 15TH AIMAV-COLLOQUIUM: WHY THE ANSWERS NEVER CAME

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The aim of the colloquium on new approaches in foreign language methodology was twofold. It was to provide answers as to what was the scientific basis of the theories under consideration, and as to how the new methods could be applied on a wider scale. Successful though it has been in other respects, the colloquium has failed to supply satisfactory answers to the two questions. The purpose of this paper is to suggest why this may have been the case.

One of the main difficulties in providing satisfactory answers may have been due to the fact that there is a (non-obvious) contradiction in the two central questions. Namely, the implicit view that the findings of research are, or should be, the basis for application of a particular method on a wider scale. Adopting here G.P. Sampson's point of view, it is suggested that it is not scientific, but educational considerations which lead to such application[1]. Educational philosophy (W. Knibbeler, in the first question of the colloquium), educational theory (Sampson), or educational policy (an alternative term suggested by W. Edmondson[2]) are successive stages in a development which leads to the application of particular techniques and materials in the classroom, independent of scientific findings. That this view is essentially correct is supported by the general tendency at the colloquium to stress the 'humanistic' aspects of the various approaches, rather than scientific data.

It is evident, that a humanistic (or any other) attitude cannot be the sole basis for a language programme. Any educational choice must be given concrete form in the materials and techniques to be used in the classroom. It is at this level that the results of scientific research should have their influence. Given the commensurability of materials and techniques with a given philosophy, research may provide insights into which are the most effective.

In order to avoid getting mixed up in the general confusion of terms, a framework will be presented in which different elements in the language educational process will be clearly distinguished. This framework will then be used as a basis for addressing the central questions of the colloquium.

Considering more closely the first question of the colloquium, one notices that the word 'approaches' has been replaced by 'theories'. Theories, here, does not mean scientific theories, for the aim of the colloquium was to find out whether these theories were based upon: (a) empirical research, (b) teaching experience, (c) common sense, or (d) a general educational philosophy. In other words, if they were grounded on scientific results (a), on intuition (b+c), or on a particular view of the educational process and the role of the teacher (d). The difficulty here lies in the fact that the different notions cannot easily be separated, since, there is always interaction of some sort between them. Intuitively, however, a grouping as in figure (1) seems appropriate.

Figure (1)

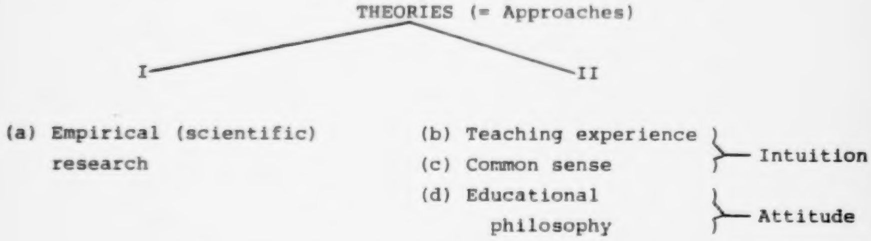
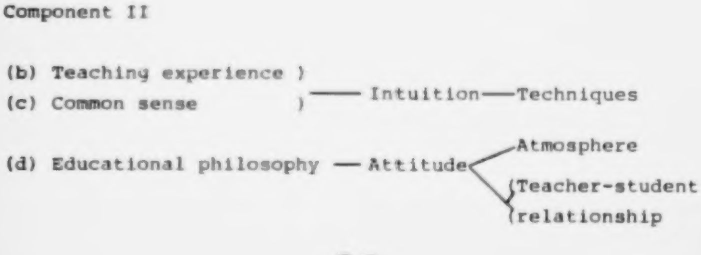

THEORIES (= Approaches)
I
II
(a) Empirical (scientific) research
(b) Teaching experience
(c) Common sense
Intuition
(d) Educational philosophy
Attitude

Figure (1) suggests that there are two major components which can lead to a theory of (or approach to) language teaching (or any other kind of teaching for that matter): a scientific component and an intuitive/philosophical component. Adhering to the suggestion made earlier, it is proposed that it is the latter component (II in figure (1)) which is the more influential for actual language teaching practice. It is also the more basic of the two, in the sense that scientific investigation is sparked off by intuitions the researcher likes to see confirmed.

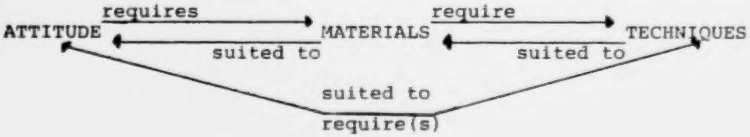
The intuitional and attitudinal subcomponents, however, should not be regarded as being on a par. Intuition is what makes the teacher present materials in a particular way. It is applied in the different concrete techniques teachers use to put across language items they are dealing with. Attitude, on the other hand, relates to ideas about how, in general, a class should be conducted; it has to do with the teacher-student relationship and with classroom atmosphere. This extension of component II of Figure (1) has been rendered graphically in Figure (1a).

Figure (1a)


Component II
(b) Teaching experience
(c) Common sense
Intuition
Techniques
(d) Educational philosophy
Attitude
Atmosphere
Teacher-student relationship

Obviously, neither attitude nor intuition can operate by itself in the language classroom. In order to give expression to either, the teacher must, of necessity, make use of actual language material, generally, a 'teaching method' embodied in a language course(book). It is evident that there are interrelations between these three 'classroom components' (not to be confused with the two components of theories, above). These relations are reflected in Figure (2).

Figure (2)



What figure (2) says is that a teacher with a particular attitude to teaching requires material that is suited to her/his style of teaching. These materials require techniques to put the language across to the students. The techniques, in turn, should fit the materials. In addition, a particular attitude will dispose a teacher more to some techniques and less to others. Conversely, some techniques will be better suited to some teachers, because they presuppose a certain attitude to teaching.

Materials, generally, take the shape of course books. These course books represent underlying ideas about what way of language teaching is 'best', about the usefulness of 'teaching methods'. By teaching methods are understood such theories as the grammar-tranlation method, the cognitive code, the audio-lingual and audio-visual methods and the latest 'fashion', the functional-notional or communicative approach. Leaving aside empirical grounds for application of any of these methods for the moment, it must be stressed that it is ideas, or intuitions, that have led to the creation of a multitude of course books. The parallel with the intuitions of the language teacher, which lead to his actual classroom behaviour, strongly suggests itself. Let us assume now, that the underlying intuitions of the language teacher closely resemble those of the course book writer. One might expect in this situation that the teacher can, more or less automatically, apply the materials in the classroom, since the techniques (s)he is disposed to will be suited to them. But even in such a situation, a teacher may find that her/his attitude requires different techniques. The dilemma is that, although there is often a clear connection between a certain technique and a certain method, different techniques may often be used to the same purpose and with identical material. Therefore, even if the course book is the main, or the only source of language material in the classroom, it does not necessarily dictate the way in which the class is conducted. Although the course book often guides (and, for practical reasons, has to guide) the teaching process, the teacher is free, to the extent of her/his abilities, to introduce techniques and, also, additional materials, better suited to her/his attitude or classroom intuition. What this amounts to can be seen from the two figures under (3).

Figure (3A)

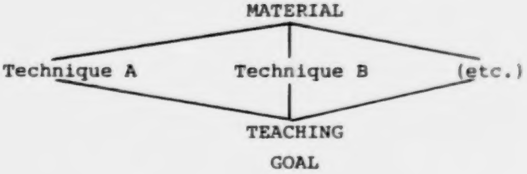


Figure (3B)

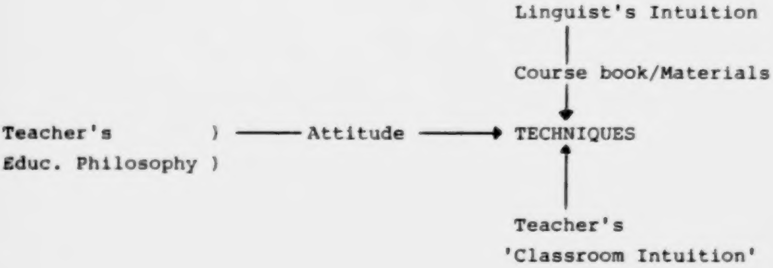
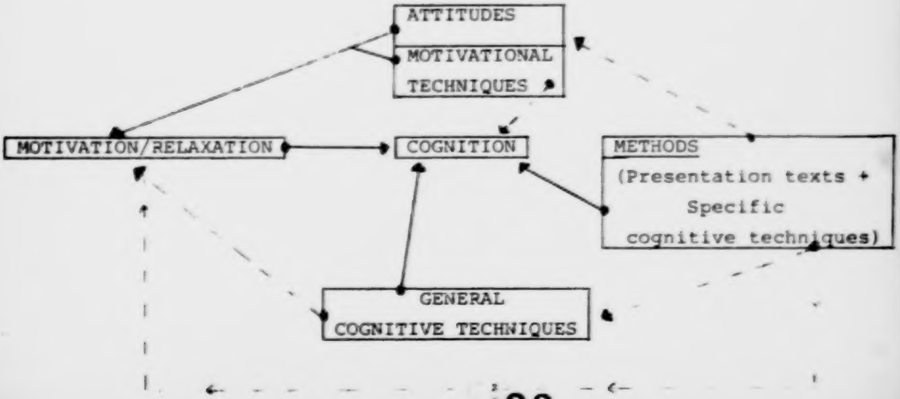


Figure (3a) suggests that the same material may be used with different techniques to lead to the same teaching goal. Figure (3b), on the other hand, makes explicit what could have been inferred from figure (2). There, the arrow relating Attitude and Techniques suggested that attitudes and techniques may exist in the classroom independent of a particular method. In figure (3b) it can be seen that there are three sources for the implementation of techniques. These three sources will, more likely than not, operate independently and therefore require different techniques.

At this point it seems appropriate, if not necessary, to be more specific about where techniques differ from materials and methods. In what has been said so far, these have not been kept rigidly apart and considerable overlap has been allowed. Furthermore, specification of different types of materials and techniques is now called for. When looking at no matter what course book, one will always find, apart from texts for presentation of language, sections which go by the general name of exercises. Exercises are intended to exploit the material of the presentation and thus give the student practice. The course book thus naturally brakes up into two parts: the presentation material, on the one hand, and the practice material (exercises), on the other. But there are different ways of presenting text material and exploiting it through exercises. These different ways of presentation and exploitation are what so far have been called techniques. Exercises, then, are techniques used in the exploitation part. But techniques are more than just exercises. Choosing to do a presentation or an exercise orally or in writing is choosing between different techniques. Mimicry, gesture, roleplay, whispering, singing and many more ways of presenting and exploiting language material are all teaching techniques. Many techniques can be employed 'bare'. With others, however, the use of aids is required. The course book is such an aid. But the range of aids is unlimited, varying from such simple things as a picture or a piece of chalk to technically advanced apparatus such as tape- and video-recorders and, nowadays, even computers. Aids are very general in their application; they can go with almost any method. With techniques, however, the situation is different. Some techniques are generally applicable, that is, they can go with any method. But there are also techniques which are characteristic of particular teaching methods; translation and substitution drills are among the best-known. Specific techniques used in presenting and exploiting material are thus characteristic of teaching methods. As important a characterizing feature of different methods is the way in which the material is structured; for instance from 'easy' to 'difficult', or 'for practical purposes'. Saying that specific techniques, specific ordering of grammatical structures and vocabulary, and ordering of the techniques to be applied are characteristic of particular methods, does not mean to imply that such techniques and orderings cannot be found as elements in courses based on another method. In principle, one might say, every technique is general; the specificness of some relates to the prominence given them in particular methods.

Methods have been devised as a means to help students acquire knowledge of a foreign language. Targets have differed under the influence of the demands of the time and the needs of different student groups. The general aim, however, has always been what I will call 'cognition'[3]. Exercises included in the course material were intended, generally, to foster cognitive growth. Adhering to the terminology so far developed, a further refinement will yet be made, by calling these exercises 'cognitive techniques'. This is in order to distinguish them from techniques intended to (positively) influence the students' motivation, or to make them feel more relaxed, which will be called 'motivational techniques'. The terminology is now complete, and the relations between all different components has been made visible in Figure (4).

Figure (4)


ATTITUDES
MOTIVATIONAL TECHNIQUES
MOTIVATION/RELAXATION
COGNITION
METHODS
(Presentation texts + Specific cognitive techniques)
GENERAL COGNITIVE TECHNIQUES

The solid arrows in figure (4) denote direct influence, the broken ones possible or secondary influence. Methods and general cognitive techniques directly influence cognition. The teacher's attitude and motivational techniques influence motivation/relaxation, which, in turn, are of direct influence on cognition. Motivational techniques may also, because of their contents, influence cognition in a direct way. Methods and general cognitive techniques may influence motivation, because they suit the student's learning style, or because they answer to the student's particular needs or interests. A method, finally, may also influence a teacher's classroom attitude (though not necessarily his/her educational philosophy), or induce him/her to introduce motivational techniques or general cognitive techniques.

So far, for clarity's sake, the role of scientific research has been left out of consideration. It has been assumed throughout that methods were created on the basis of intuitions. Although this is certainly the case, it is no less true that intuititions can be tested empirically. And here, of course, is where the scientist comes in. In figure (4) this is precisely in those places where the arrows are. The arrows, it may be recalled, represent influence on something. But, since an intuitive basis for language teaching and method construction has been assumed, these influences can only be 'supposed influences'. To be able to speak of real influence, the influence must have been proved significant by the scientific researcher. Whether such scientific findings are themselves of any influence on the educational process is a question that will be addressed in relation to the second question of the colloquium. But before that an answer is now in order to the first question, the one about the scientific basis of the new approaches. In order to be able to supply an answer, one has to decide whether the new approaches are in fact new mehods, new techniques (motivational or cognitive) or new attitudes to language teaching. Having done that, the simple question can be asked whether there is empirical proof that the specific influence (as expressed in the arrows of figure (4)) is greater than in other tested methods/techniques/attitudes.

The general impression the colloquium has given is that the new approaches (with the exception of the functional-notional approach) are not new methods, but new techniques or attitudes or a combination of both. The effectiveness of these can easily be tested, and for some this seems to have been done, with favourable results. However, one should always be alert to the danger of overestimating and overgeneralizing from the results of experiments. This observation bears on the matter of applicability of the new approaches, the second question of the colloquium, which will now be discussed.

It should be realized that whether an approach is intuitively or scientifically based bears no relation to the question of whether it is, or should be, applied. Application of an approach, on the contrary, is related to a general educational philosophy, an idea of what education is about. Such a philosophy forms the basis of an educational theory, which defines general educational goals. It is these goals, therefore, which generally determine the choice of materials and techniques of a method. This choice is a matter of educational policy. Choice of a method will also involve choice of a course book; this too is a matter of educational policy. Educational policy decisions are made at different levels. At least three can easily be distinguished: government policy, school policy and classroom policy. It follows from this that the scientifically proven value of a method or technique is in guarantee that it will be applied on a large scale. Whether this will be the case depends primarily on whether the new approach is acceptable to the philosophies of the different policy makers. If it is, scientific evidence of the superiority of the new method or technique may count in its favour.

Given the fact that there are higher levels at which choices are made, a teacher will often find her-/himself in a situation where (s)he has to work with a course, or even a method, which is not at all, or only partly, in agreement with her/his own ideas about language teaching. As likely as not, (s)he will want to do something about this situation. If so, (s)he is in the same sort of situation as those teachers who are lucky enough to work (whether from choice or by chance) with the method and even course book of their liking. Assuming that the teacher is relatively free to organize his/her own classes, then, whether it concerns methods, course books, additional materials or techniques, or aids, (s)he will always be in a position where (s)he has to make choices. It is at this point that difficulties arise. Let us assume that (s)he has a reasonable familiarity with existing methods, and has, on whatever grounds, been able to decide on one. The teacher who is in a position to do so can now choose from among the variety of available course books. Other teachers may want to select additional materials or techniques. The problem is, of course, twofold. First, the average teacher will lack sufficient time to acquaint her-/himself with all that is new. Secondly, proper evaluation of the material will all too often be problematic. This may be due to a variety of reasons:
Often the distinction between cognitive and motivational techniques is not made. Although considerable overlap is allowed for (see figure (4)), a teacher has to know whether a technique is meant primarily to improve the classroom atmosphere or to exercise the brain. Similarly, material may be intended as presentation material, as first practice, as reinforcement, as an extension of the basic material, or as a combination of some or all of these. The intention is often not stated. Another problem may be that additional materials, in some way, do not tally with the basic material; i.e., apart from the material that corresponds, the additional material introduces new vocabulary and/or structures. Although that in itself need not be problematic, it is, if it is not made clear (e.g. by means of lists of words and structures) what is contained in it, so that the teacher can easily see what is new. Instructions may be unclear or complicated, necessary aids may not be mentioned, expensive, or hard to get or construct. Moreover, there may be all sorts of underlying assumptions about teacher-student relationships, available time, socio-political backgrounds, etc., none or only some of which are being made explicit. All of these factors (and maybe more) should be taken into account by the teacher, because they all influence the applicability of materials and techniques. It is therefore that this information should be readily available to the teacher.

Most of the points just mentioned are related to 'material' matters. With the last one, however, the social aspect of classroom-life was touched upon. This point requires some more attention, because student groups differ in a great many respects (in fact, no two groups are alike) and teacher-student relationships may also vary a great deal. These variations should be taken into consideration when constructing or selecting materials. With regard to the students, the following points are relevant:
The most obvious one is perhaps the level of abstraction, due to age and general cognitive development. This is a difference that has been appreciated for some time. Language level is another obvious point. Language learning aptitude (and perhaps also language learning experi-

ence) seems to be less obvious (or maybe more difficult to assess), but must not be disregarded. Furthermore, it ought to be realized that learners come in different types (e.g. visually versus orally oriented). Then, naturally, the composition of the group is of immense importance; such factors as the number of students, the number of mother tongues they speak, their sex, their motives for learning the foreign language, their special interests, or the fact that they are second or foreign language learners all play a part; as does the question whether the group consists of students with comparable or mixed abilities. Then, of course, learners come from different social, cultural and political backgrounds.
Materials, it must be born in mind, are not automatically applicable to all groups of students; nor are techniques. What is right for one group, or even for one student, may be too easy, too difficult, strange, startling, or offensive for others.

Different teaching styles also require different materials and techniques. Teaching styles may vary in a number of different ways: The teacher may want to teach the group in its entirety, in subgroups or individually. His/her teaching may strongly guide the students or be more of the 'laissez-faire' type. (S)he may look upon teaching more in its strict sense, or more as playing, or even as play-acting.

All these variations should be taken into account when constructing or selecting materials. It is obvious that hardly any material or technique can be used with all types of learner groups, or all teaching styles. Applicability may even be extremely limited, some materials or techniques being suitable only for particular groups in particular situations.

Returning now to the new approaches of the colloquium, it may be observed that all that has been said in the preceding paragraphs should also be considered when evaluating their applicability. Since the precise nature and purpose of the different approaches have not been defined in any way, the question of how they can be applied on a wider scale cannot really be answered. Useful answers (intuitive or scientific) can only be arrived at by specifically answering the various points raised above.

The purpose of this paper has been to suggest why answers to the two questions of the colloquium have not been formulated. Before addressing the two questions, a framework was developed, which made it possible to distinguish between different kinds of approaches and their effects. This was then used to indicate the role of science in evaluating approaches. The influence of scientific results on the educational philosophy, which was said to determine educational policy. Following this, the predicaments of the language teacher were outlined and used as pointers for the attention of the linguist. In order to stress the importance of effective communication of new developments from linguist to teacher and from teacher to student, some final recommendations will now be given, thereby summarizing and concluding from the preceding.

For any new approach to language teaching specifications should be given as to whether it is:

(1) a method, technique, or attitude;

(2) scientifically proved to be better than another specified approach, with specifications of the circumstances.

(3) Clear and succinct information (based on (2)) as to the student population for whom it is intended should be given. If possible, it should also be indicated to what groups it might be extended.

(4) There should be clear and succinct information as to how it can be applied in the classroom and as to what aids are needed.

(5) In addition to the first four points, and perhaps most important of all, it should be indicated what the new approach is intended to effect. This may be trivial in the case of a simple technique. It should be realized, however, that any choice is bound to be based on ideas about education. This underlying educational philosophy becomes of overriding importance when it comes to choosing or creating a new method.

It is hoped, that those linguists who occupy themselves with creating and testing approaches to language teaching will be clear in their minds about all these points, and that they will be explicit when making their information available to those for whom it is intended: all those teachers all over the world trying to make their language classes as interesting and effective as they can for their students. If this is done, such questions as those of the 15th AIMAV- colloquium cannot remain unanswered on a following occasion.

FOOTNOTES

1. A view expressed during Workshop 45 at the colloquium.
2. The term was suggested in the ensuing discussion to Sampson's workshop.
3. The term cognition has been chosen, because I prefer not to take a stand here with regard to the difference in technical meaning ascribed to the terms 'acquisition' and 'learning' by Stephen Krashen.

BEFORE WE START APPLYING A THEORY: SOME METHODOLOGICAL REMARKS

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Is foreign language didactics a science? Is its status that of technology, applied science, or that of empirical theory? Are its statements scientific, valid and/or utilizable? Attempts at answering these questions may prove essential for the application of a given theory. After all, we apply it to living people, and it must not be damaging in any way. Foreign language didactics or 'glottodidactics' is generally accepted to be an empirical science, with other disciplines performing an auxiliary function. Like most theories, it is supposed to fulfil the following functions:
a) practical
b) predictive
c) explanatory
d) descriptive.
It is sometimes divided into "pure" glottodidactics - comprising *c* and *d*, and "applied" glottodidactics - comprising *a* and *b*.

Three types of methodological (i.e. epistemological) approaches can be distinguished here. In the first one, the practical function *a* is regarded as primary, although it may be connected with *b*. In the second, intermediary approach, both aspects, i.e. "pure" and "applied" are regarded as wholly interrelated and based on mutual feedback. In the third approach, *c* and *d* are clearly considered to be the primary functions, often the only ones accepted as scientific. They are viewed as logically primordial (the direction is from *d* to *a*); *a*, however, may be excluded from consideration. Naturally enough, nobody openly acknowledges his support for the extreme aproaches.

The purpose of this paper is to prove that the third approach cannot be effectively sustained, while the second approach is dubious. My contention is that glottodidactics is not an autonomous scientific discipline, i.e. an empirical theory verifiable by practice. Its "pure" aspect is either reducible to other disciplines or methodologically faulty, while the "applied" aspect can, on its own, satisfy the requirements of applicability and credibility and thus, perhaps, become more "scientific". The term "technology" would perhaps more accurately describe "glottodidactics".

In view of this I adopt the first approach. Here are some arguments in favour of this thesis:
Explanatory procedures in glottodidactics are insufficient. The first type of explanations consists in using hypotheses that have never been and will never be verified (e.g. explaining success as a result of suggestion) or even are not verifiable at all. This consists in "ad hoc" ex-

planations, whose explanans is a theoretical construct formed precisely to fill in the gap in the whole reasoning. The empirical validity of such constructs is either not verified or can, "by definition", not be verified. It concerns in particular the so-called "models". The concept of linguistic or communicative competence may serve as an example.

For empiricists in a broad sense of the word, "competence" is a potential that cannot be observed otherwise than through its empirical consequences. In our case it reveals itself, by definition, in performance. A causative relation between the act of performance and the corresponding quantum of competence cannot be proved because of its tautological character; if we assume that it does exist, we will never be able, despite the experimental results, to prove the lack of it or lack of competence in general. In other words, we could assume that the very act of performance proves the existence of competence. But in the case of lack of performance we cannot always know whether it results from lack of competence or from other causes. If we agree that it may result from other causes, then the theory which assumes the existence of competence becomes unfalsifiable; thus it is - according to empiricism - non-scientific and even uninteresting (Popper 1974). If, on the other hand, we assume that the lack of performance means lack of competence, then we claim that the concepts of *competence* and *performance* are equivalent (competence always and only when performance); thus at least one of them would be superfluous.

It seems that the concept of "competence" was necessary for generative-transformational linguists to answer the question of what they examine if they do not examine performance (Ruwet 1968). Unequivocally, lost between speech psychology and logic, the status of competence is perhaps useful to linguistics but the concept does not seem to be necessary in glottodidactics.

A similar unfalsifiability, typical of other concepts of "abilities", exists in didactics. "Ability" is generally treated as a bundle of personal features which form a condition necessary and - with certain external factors - sufficient for performing some definite activity (Guilford 1959). The presence of this activity would be an argument in favour of a given ability. But does the lack of activity prove the lack of abilities? This dilemma is solved in various ways. Sometimes, as in E.L. Thorndike in his considerations on intelligence, it is understood not as the thing a man can do but what he actually does (Freehill 1961). Similarly, creativity and creation are often meant to be the same (Beaudot 1979). Therefore one frequently looks for the so-called indicator of a given ability which consists of the factors that positively correlate with the manifestation of the given activity but are not identical. One forgets, however, the necessity of proving not only positive correlation but also the lack of negative correlation; as well as lack of positive correlation of those indicators with other manifestations, and these first manifestations with other indicators; one forgets, that is, to prove exclusiveness of the indicators. But even having overcome those difficulties, one may prove at best the relation between indicators and manifestations of abilities (activities) - for instance when a person who exhibits the relevant features only begins to manifest the proper and expected activity after some time - and not the relation between the former or the latter and the ability itself, which becomes only the name for the given relation.

Similar difficulties with "non-falsifiability" arise in everyday glottodidactic practice when someone is, for instance, doing a comprehension test. Each test comprises some linguistic or extralinguistic production by a student (answering questions, accomplishing tasks, "true-false", etc.). Here again, a correct production may sometimes - with restrictions - prove the understanding of the control text but lack of this production does not necessarily constitute proof of lack of comprehension.

In theoretical considerations having, as it seems, a mostly explanatory function, we also encounter examples of "non-falsifiable" claims. To some extent this concerns S. Krashen's considerations. They are analysed in detail by H. Krzyzanowski in his forthcoming article under the significant title: "Is it possible to falsify Krashen's model? The axiomatic character of the Monitor Model."

Krashen (1981: 2) claims for instance that "conscious learning is available to the performer only as a Monitor", provided certain conditions are fulfilled (performer must have time, must be focused on form, needs to know the rule). But, as Krashen puts it: "Situations in which all three conditions are satisfied are rare." This way of learning, with the conditions fulfilled and demonstrated by language production, is, in a sense by definition, using the monitor. This statement, when made, does not need to be proved, but then it cannot be proved.

Krashen goes on to state that acquisition, "as opposed to learning", is "the result of input" (Krashen 1981: 128). Optimal meaningful or comprehensible input is a condition for acquisition. This statement would be best proved by constructing an optimal input for a given student and waiting for the results. (Of course, the control group would have to be deprived of the input). If acquisition does result, we prove the validity of the theory. But what if the acquisition does not result? Would the input theory be falsified? No. Here Krashen introduces the concept of "filter", after Dulay and Burt (Krashen 1981: 110): "If the affective filter is 'up', no matter how beautifully the input is sequenced, no matter how meaningful and communicative the exercise is intended to be, little or no acquisition will take place." Thus, if there is acquisition, the input was correct. This is so even if we artificially deprive the student of the proper input, because it may act beyond our and the student's consciousness. "The teacher, the advanced second language performer and the native speaker (...) may unconsciously make a 100 or maybe a 1000 alterations in his speech that provide the acquirer with optimal input for language acquisition". If, however, there is no proper acquisition, obviously the input was wrong. But if we know that it was correct, probably some filter has operated - an affective filter, or another, not yet discovered filter - and everything fits. Since there are no other possibilities, this theory of input - intake - becomes an idea proved once and for ever the moment it is proclaimed.

This kind of explanation seems to be fairly popular in our field but is, it seems, uncertain and, in my opinion, of little use.

Others put it more mildly, stating that statements (or even theorems) are simply axioms and, as such, are "absolutely harmless" (H. Krzyzanowski) in teaching practice. W. Marton and others even claim that they have some practical applications, since they supply useful and understandable names (such as "competence", "ability", "meaningful input") for different phenomena.

The second class of explanations are those which in their explanans refer to propositions of other sciences: this means reducing glottodidactics to linguistics, psychology, general didactics, sociology, etc. Theorems of those sciences may, in turn, further reduce themselves and, moreover, suffer from their own shortcomings, as in the paragraph above.

Some other possible kinds of explanation are based on propositions being at best generalizations (if not singular sentences), which eliminates almost completely their applicability and also predictive value, and so weakens approach II.

If, however, a valid explanation has somehow been found, it must be subordinated to a practical function, since the selection of facts to be explained cannot be based mainly on the researcher's own cognitive interests. The superior reason for research activities is of a moral-practical character. Though this is a question of philosophical approach, I would presume that everybody would agree about this point.

In connection with the above it may be doubted that the practical function *a* and the predictive one *b* must be conditioned by the others *c* and *d*. The "pure" aspect is not indispensible for "practice" on the same grounds on which so-called empirical medicine is possible. The "pure" aspect, however, should use the applied one to keep (or rather gain) a scientific status. "Theory" should check its statements, even the exemplifying ones, somehow, according to the idea of not only "falsificationism" but generally "verificationism". A theory depends on practice and not vice versa. It is not true that any assertion of the type "if you want to achieve q, apply p", may be transformed into a directive one of the type "apply p and achieve q". From the point of view of the "internal functionalism" of a theory, the assertion should be transformed into a directive to be verified. From the practical point of view, it should not be transformed, except when p and q are considered valuable.

The general reason for the doubts presented above is most probably the fact that the domain of a glottodidactic theory is the reality designed by man in consideration of some goals and not nature divorced from man or physiological or social phenomena which reveal regularities unrealized by an individual. Incidentally, it is often the same people who design this reality and examine it and are thus judges of their own deeds. The aim of the activities designed seems to be more important here than the relevance of its explications.

In view of what has been said above, the answer to one of the questions the participants of the present colloquium have been asked seems to be that language didactics is not based on autonomous, scientific grounds. Practical successes depend on many factors from the borderlines of different sciences, as well as Hawthorne effects, publicity, goals, conditions, needs and abilities.

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SCIENTIFIC THEORY VERSUS EDUCATIONAL THEORY

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INTRODUCTION

At present linguists, psychologists and educators claim that curricula and instructional practices in the field of second and foreign language pedagogy rest upon scientific findings. I shall argue that it is impossible in fact for curriculum development and instructional techniques to be wholly, or rather simply, scientific. I suggest that only the findings of an educational theory, not a scientific theory can feed directly into curriculum development and teaching practice. The role of an educational theory is to evaluate the appropriateness of findings in the scientific theories for practical educational purposes. Some aspects of a science, if applied to human beings, may prove harmful. I shall provide one example of such harm which stems from the direct application to educational practice of a current linguistic theory.

My argument is based on the notion that scientific theories and educational theories are qualitatively different. Because these differences have not been made explicit before, the value-laden or ideological bases of language teaching approaches have been hidden from view. As a result, foreign language curricula and teaching practices that are in fact laden with values have been presented as being based solely on scientific findings. I shall provide examples of three different teaching approaches used in three countries--Canada, the U.S.A. and the People's Republic of China. These examples will demonstrate, I hope, that linguists and educators need to separate out scientific principles from educational principles: otherwise they will continue to apply scientific findings in an *ad hoc* and uncritical manner. Countries importing new language teaching approaches must be especially aware of the differences between scientific theories and educational theories, since it is important to distinguish between ideological content and scientific content in the imported language teaching approaches. I believe that there are some procedures that foreign language educators can use in order to assess the appropriateness of new approaches to specific educational systems.

SCIENTIFIC THEORIES CONTRASTED WITH EDUCATIONAL THEORY

Scientific theories and educational theories differ from one another in three important ways. They differ first with respect to their goals; second, with respect to who judges the adequacy of the theory; and third, with respect to the nature of the judgements that can be made about the adequacy of the theory.

The goals of a scientific theory are to amass knowledge and to explain concisely and elegantly the facts that are amassed. In contrast, the goals of an educational theory are quite different. An educational theory is a guide to the actions required to produce a certain kind of person. An educational theory is considered adequate if and only if it works to help human beings become like the kind of person specified in the goal. Thus, it is eminently a theory of practice or action. In short, the goal of a scientific theory is *to explain*, the goal of an educational theory is *to produce a certain kind of person* (Egan 1973). This focus on praxis rather than reflection marks a clear difference between the goals of an educational theory and the goals of a scientific theory.

A second difference between the two kinds of theory lies in who judges the adequacy of the theory. The scientific community and it alone judges the adequacy of a scientific theory. Scientists can quite justifiably say to the lay public that the public does not have the expertise to make a sound decision as to whether a particular scientific theory is correct or not. In contrast, the lay public judges the educational theory used in a particular society. Thus, the ordinary person in a society is considered capable of making decisions as to the adequacy and acceptability of an educational theory used in that society.

The third difference between the two kinds of theories lies in the kind of judgements that are made about each. A scientific theory is judged to be correct or incorrect. In contrast, an educational theory is judged as good or bad. Good and bad are value-laden terms. Correct and incorrect are value-free terms. For example, a concept in linguistics, such as the notion of "transformation" is judged as correct or incorrect on the basis of criteria such as logic, conciseness, match with data collected, and simplicity within the context of the theory. On the other hand, if learners emerged from an educational programme as inarticulate, or as liars, or lacking knowledge, the educational theory underlying the programme would not be judged as an incorrect theory but as a bad theory. The theory is judged good or bad on the basis of whether or not it leads to the development of traits in human beings that are specified in the goals of the educational theory. Since the goals will vary from culture to culture, from nation to nation, from era to era, what is considered a good educational theory will similarly differ. No single educational theory will be considered uniformly good by all peoples. Educational theories are necessarily culturally relative; scientific theories are culture-free.

THE MISUSE OF SCIENTIFIC THEORY

The claim is sometimes made that curricula or certain instructional practices in a foreign language are based upon the latest findings in the sciences of linguistics or psychology. Implicit in such a claim is the notion that findings in these sciences may feed directly into curriculum development or teaching practice. I believe that such a claim cannot be correct, but that in fact only educational theory can feed directly into curriculum development and teaching practice. One particular issue that illlustrates most vividly how a scientific theory can be misused in foreign language teaching is the one connected to the notion of the innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) conceptualized originally by the American psycholinguist McNeill in 1966, and further developed by second language researchers such as Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982).

The latter refer to this innate language acquisition device as the "organizer". Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) state that

> *"The organizer is that part of the internal processing system that is responsible for the learner's gradual organization of the new language system. Its functioning is subconscious and is based on what psychologists call 'cognitive' principles: analytical and logical criteria for the organization of knowledge and behavior." (p. 54)*

They further state:

> *"The organizer is similar to Chomsky's (1975) 'language acquisition device'" (p. 54, footnote)*

In their 1982 book, *Language Two*, these researchers go directly from discussing scientific findings within the context of transformational-generative grammar to suggesting guidelines that teachers should follow as a result of these scientifc reports. The very first two of fourteen characteristics of the language learning process are:

> *"1. There appear to be innate learning processors which guide L2 acquisition."*
> *"2. Exposure to natural communication in the target language is necessary for the subconscious processors to work well."*

In fact, what do these scientific findings offer to the field of foreign language teaching? To be told that there is and innate device that automatically turns on shortly after birth, runs until puberty and then shuts off, and that this device somehow causes people to learn languages is simply to beg the question of how people learn. If linguistic structures somehow unfold through the mediation of this proposed mechanism, the process is not learning at all, but simply growth. Indeed, these researchers believe learning can play only an incidental role in foreign language pedagogy. The LAD drives language acquisition. This scientific theory applied to education suggests that neither the learner nor the teacher can have any control over the biologically-driven language acquisition device, since if it stops working or is defective, there is nothing that one can do to help the learner. The harmful effects of the language acquisition device hypothesis are enormous. Rather than researchers studying the conditions under which languages can be taught, researchers instead tell educators that young children *should not* be taught foreign languages because they are supposed to acquire them in so-called natural settings. Researchers tell teachers that older learners *cannot* be taught foreign languages since their language acquisition devices (LADs) turned off earlier at puberty. In short, the result of direct application of scientific findings in linguistics to education has been to demote the status of curricula and of the classroom. Curricula are considered unnecessary since the language acquisition device operates autonomously in the individual independent of external input. The role of the classroom is downgraded since the classroom is not a so-called natural setting and things done in that setting must surely be unnatural. Foreign language learning by adults is discouraged since they are supposedly too old to learn a foreign language. Clearly, the direct application of these scientific findings in the science of linguistics is harmful to the educational process. Learners receive no better instruction because of the scientific theory; indeed, just the opposite occurs, because the classroom is seen as unnatural and therefore dysfunctional.

In contrast, what can an educational theory offer to the field of foreign language pedagogy?

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL THEORY

The role of educational theory in the field of foreign language teaching is two-fold. One role of educational theory is to evaluate scientific theories, such as those in linguistics and psychology and to determine what aspects of those scientific theories should be applied to human beings and under what conditions these scientific theories should be applied. I have provided one example of a linguistic theory being applied directly to educational practice and it illustrated the fact that direct application of a scientific theory to educational practice can lead to results that are harmful to human beings and may indeed be unproductive or even destructive in the realm of educational practice.

The suggestion that the role of educational theory is to evaluate scientific theories before they are applied is bound to be met with dismay by linguists and psychologists. Let it be clear that I am *not* suggesting that we challenge the findings of science or replace those findings. I am suggesting that we evaluate very carefully the *applications* of science to human beings. Language learners process not only linguistic forms, but handle cognitive concepts, function in an affective domain, adjust to new cultural behaviours and attitudes, and engage in paraconscious activities. A linguistic theory has to be interpreted in light of these many other factors before it can be applied to the language learning process. An educational theory is used to evaluate which linguistic theory or which psychological theory will best mesh with the complex of other factors that need to be taken into account when developing sound educational programmes.

The other role of an educational theory stems from its being laden with values. An educational theory is a subset of a political theory. It, like political theory, makes assumptions about human nature. For example, is human nature static or dynamic? That is, is each individual endowed at birth with certain traits which are unchangeable or is each individual highly malleable? Have human beings already evolved to their highest form or are they capable of further evolution through the mediation of the social process? Different societies have fundamentally different answers to these questions. Depending on its answers to these kinds of questions, each society will develop a different educational theory and will therefore evaluate findings from the sciences differently. A finding in one science that is quite acceptable for application in one society may be wholly unacceptable for application in another society. Such a view of the relationship between scientific theory and educational theory leads to the conclusion then that there can be no universal so-called scientific method of language teaching. Different educational theories will evaluate scientific findings differently and hence apply them differently. To illustrate this point I shall look at three different teaching approaches that have been used in three countries and attempt to show why these approaches were acceptable to the society, not for their scientific bases but for their educational, and hence ideological aspects.

THREE APPROACHES IN THREE COUNTRIES

While the scientific basis of foreign language teaching approaches has been examined, the educational bases of these approaches have not been explicitly inspected. I shall examine the educational bases of three approaches: the functional approach as used in Canada at the present time, the audio-lingual approach as used in the United States of America and the grammar-translation approach as used in the People's Republic of China. These examples will reveal that it is not the scientific basis of these approaches that makes them acceptable in each country, but the values in each approach. The values are congruent in each case with the educational theory prevalent in the country. Again, it should be recalled that an educational theory is a subset of a political theory.

In the past few years the functional approach to second and foreign language teaching has been accepted with remarkable rapidity by educators in Canada. This swift acceptance of a new approach is all the more evident because it can be contrasted to a much lesser degree of acceptance in a country that is physically and socially similar--the U.S.A. Why has the functional approach been adopted so swiftly and in such a widespread manner in Canada? The answer lies in the fact that the functional approach emphasizes *when* to use a second or foreign language. *When* to use a given language is very important in a country which guarantees bilingualism officially in its constitution. It is important in such a country that the two constitutionally guaranteed languages (English and French) do not come into conflict. Hence, a language teaching approach that happens to highlight the conditions of use of a language will be a most appropriate one for the educational system.

Another setting in which a particular language teaching approach was congruent with a particular educational theory is that of the United States during the 1940s and 1950s where the audio-lingual approach was developed and used extensively. In fact, while the audio-lingual approach has probably been replaced by the communicative approach for the teaching of English as a second language there, the audio-lingual approach is still used extensively for the teaching of languages such as Russian and Chinese. Why might this be the case?

The effectiveness of the audio-lingual approach was highlighted during World War II when it was used to teach enemy languages such as Japanese. The emphasis in the approach was on learning linguistic forms, rather than meaning or functions. This emphasis is most appropriate when a government must teach its citizens a language of an enemy, for there is of course no desire to inculcate in the citizens any love of the enemy's language or culture. It is wise to leave out meaning, to leave out literature since if a citizen fully understood the culture and the literature, the citizen might come to accept the enemy's point of view and defect to the enemy. Thus there is a focus on linguistic form and a focus on the oral language, as the latter is more transitory than literature.

It may be worth recalling that linguists were, however, claiming that a focus on the oral language and a focus on linguistic forms were scientific, and that language teaching was for the first time being put on a wholly scientific basis. When we distinguish between scientific and educational theories, such claims become suspect.

The third situation is the use of the grammar-translation approach in the People's Republic of China. This approach has been used to teach foreign languages such as English, French, Spanish, German and others. Chinese language teachers are presently re-evaluating this approach and moving to other teaching approaches. As in the audio-lingual approach, there is a tremendous emphasis in the grammar-translation approach on linguistic forms rather than meaning or functions of language. The forms are the focus of extensive discussion and explication. By focussing on form rather than meaning, citizens are not exposed to the thinking of the foreigners who speak that language. On the other hand, in marked contrast to the audio-lingual approach, there is an emphasis on reading literature in the foreign language in the grammar-translation approach. How have the Chinese handled this? An inspection of English language literature used in China in the 1960s and 1970s reveals a careful selection. In selections of American literature, for instance, the writings of Agnes Smedley, an American leftist, and the writings of certain socially conscious American writers of the 1930s were used. Thus the problem of having one's citizens exposed to an alien philosophy of life is avoided.

These examples illustrate the notion that educational theory not only can, but has in fact, been an important, if not overriding, factor in the acceptance of new approaches to foreign language teaching in specific countries. The examples are also suggestive in another way. Linguists claimed that the audio-lingual approach was more scientific than the grammar-translation approach. Because the scientific versus the educational strands in this approach were not teased apart, it is now unclear whether that claim was correct. Because the scientific versus the educational strands are not being teased apart when other new approaches are discussed at the present time, how can anyone claim that a given approach is more scientific than any other?

It should be stressed that I am not suggesting that science is irrelevant to the development of language teaching approaches. I am not saying either that educators have not and will not accept scientific findings. What I am saying is that scientific theory and educational theory must be carefully distinguished from one another. Neither is better than the other. Both are necessary to the development and acceptance of effective teaching practices.

I do think, however, that it is particularly important for those countries which import language teaching approaches from other countries not to accept a false bill of goods. Linguists and psychologists have sometimes claimed that one approach is better than another because it is wholly scientific. Clearly that claim cannot be true. Scientists must understand the limits of their theory-making. Educators must be more precise in articulating educational theory. Both must understand that in the end it is the lay public that judges the adequacy of educational theory.

In foreign language pedagogy, I suggest we accept a framework which distinguishes between scientific findings and the evaluation of those findings for application to human beings. Given such a framework, how might we assess new language teaching approaches?

ASSESSING LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES

I wish to suggest three criteria to use in assessing new language teaching approaches. They are based on the observations I have made above. These observations demonstrated how scientific theory has been misused in educational practice and that particular language teaching approaches are adopted in societies only when the underlying values of the approach are congruent with the more general educational goals of the society. Because these criteria are drawn from an examination of empirical evidence, they will change over the course of time. The criteria are three dialectical oppositions which I believe underlie the situations I have described.

The first dialectical opposition is that of form versus function in language. When a foreign language is spoken by those who are considered more of an enemy than a friend, then the teaching approach used will stress linguistic forms and play down the role of language functions and meaning. The approach will tend to focus on mechanical aspects of language learning, such as grammatical patterns and phonology. Curriculum materials will be highly structured so that teachers have little autonomy. There will tend to be a focus on correctness of linguistic form rather than on appropriateness of language use. Even in areas where content would seem to be important, such as reading, the focus will shift away from the content of the written material. Reading will be regarded as the acquisition of a set of neutral literacy skills. The stress will not be on what the author means, but rather on mechanical skills, such as decoding, picking out the topic sentence, finding synonyms and other form-oriented aspects of the reading process.

The second dialectical opposition is that between language as an object versus language as an activity. When language is considered as an object, it is external and independent of the learner. When language is considered as an activity in which humans engage, then learning a language is considered part of a process of socialization. The curriculum and teaching practices will tend to have the following characteristics. There will not be a rigid sequencing of curriculum materials because the teacher will be expected to adjust the daily lessons continually to match the everchanging socialization pattern of the individual learner. There will be a tendency to consider the uses of the language, whether these be articulated in terms of notions or of functions. Because learning the language is considered as part of a socialization process, a rich curriculum that goes beyond linguistic forms will be developed. Such a curriculum may include an awareness of cognitive, affective, motor and social objectives in addition to merely linguistic objectives. If the language being learned is that of a friendly country, then these multi-faceted objectives may well be elaborated in terms of the foreign culture's values. If the language being learned is that of an enemy, then the foreign tongue's linguistic forms may be used, but the functions taught will be those acceptable in the mother tongue culture.

The third opposition is that between language being learned versus language being taught. For instance, if it is believed that there is an innate genetic device that controls foreign language acquisition, then language learning will be seen as autonomous and individualistic. The role of input to the learner will be downplayed and therefore teachers and classrooms may be seen not only as useless, but even harmful, insofar as teachers and formal curricula could hamper what is termed "natural" language learning. Such a point of view will lead to the abandonment of formal curricula and a downgrading of the role of the teacher. On the other hand, if language is considered teachable, then great attention will be paid to curriculum development and the role of the classroom teacher as a model, not only of the foreign language, but of other aspects of life as well, since the learner is considered malleable.

I suggest that anyone developing an educational theory relevant to foreign language teaching needs to make a value decision as to the relative weight to be given to one or the other pole of each of these oppositions. The relative weighting given to one pole or the other will lead to different evaluations being made about which linguistic or psychological theory should be incorporated in a new language teaching approach.

Approaches to teaching foreign languages necessarily develop within some educational framework, whether that framework is made explicit or not. As a result, different approaches cannot be compared on the basis of which is more scientific, for none is value-free. Nor can it be suggested that any approach is appropriate for all countries. Nor can any approach be considered neutral. Foreign language instruction is more than the scientific management of skills transmission (de Castell and Luke).

In conclusion, I have presented logical and empirical evidence to support the claim that scientific theory and educational theory differ profoundly. The role of educational theory is to evaluate findings in the sciences in order to assess their impact on human beings. Because any foreign language teaching approach must necessarily rest on some educational theory, it is impossible to have a *simply* scientific approach to foreign language pedagogy.

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AN EMERGING METAPHOR: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Much current research is coalescing in an approach to language learning that calls itself "communicative", or, more specifically, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT); and, though the work is yet preliminary, this approach has the possibility of being less vague than former "communicative competence" approaches, less limited than notional-functional ones, less ethnocentric than many humanistic approaches, and less psycholinguistically objectionable than audiolingual ones. A reason this approach is so promising is that in concept it is closely related to research in several other fields, a fact which not only may permit CLT to be applied on a much larger scale than it is now, but may also bring to it means for the empirical testing of its principles. At present, the sources of CLT are disparate and its current practice quite varied, yet underlying all of the directions it has taken are these similarities: (a) communicative competence is the goal at each level of instruction, and the message to be communicated is the focus for all instruction; (b) interaction among language users with their environment is a primary objective of all exercises; (c) the processes of language using, the strategies for making sense of something and for negotiating meanings with an audience, are the center of attention.

There is agreement about many of the *dis*agreements among CLT practitioners as well. They mainly have to do with whether method or content should be the centre for a communicative course. Should methodology, for example, continue to be developed at the expense of syllabus design (for this has been the tendency so far); or should the content of a communicative syllabus be better worked out before it is presented in the classroom? I shall have more to say about this, but first I would like to describe how this approach ties in with current theory building in second language acquisition research, linguistics, and Artificial Intelligence; and before that, I should like to discuss the more general link between approach and metaphor, for I believe that one of the problems in talking about CLT is that it has moved away from the metaphors commonly used to describe language teaching and has yet to fasten to one of its own.

A metaphor helps us feel we understand by setting up a comparison of something whose outlines are vague and imperfectly understood with something whose shape is distinct and familiar by suggesting likenesses between the two. In this way it provides us with a framework for organizing our knowledge and gives shape to the unknown. The more likenesses it suggests, the better the metaphor seems to be, and often, if good or familiar enough, merges its halves and becomes "reality". When this happens, a metaphor has a tendency to produce knowledge as well as organize it, for it keeps transferring implications of the familiar to the vague, some of which may be more valid than others. If metaphor were only rhetorical flourish then this problem would be essentially trivial and we need not bother; but it is clear that it is much more. Any model, any theory, any description is a metaphor of a sort, so most of the explaining and learning we do takes place metaphorically. Language learning and teaching, then, are closely tied to metaphor, as Herron claims: "what we teach (or think we are teaching) and how we teach, along with the complementary perceptions of value, are intimately linked to metaphor". (1982:241) Yet in spite of this link, there has been little written about the relationship between metaphor and language learning, or between metaphor and education in general for that matter. Herron's article, one of the best in tracing the history of the metaphors that have characterized language teaching, summarizes the situation somewhat as follows.

The grammar-translation approach is accompanied by a gymnastic metaphor, one which equates training and exercise of the body with that of the mind. The main thrust of the equation is that just as muscles become stronger and more flexible through rigorous exercise, the mind becomes more dextrous through classroom training. And just as the body becomes generally stronger as a result of this training, learning results in generally increased intellectual powers. Some of the implications of this metaphor are that students are full of latent abilities which, because of lack of training, have never been developed; that teachers are trainers who will discipline them into practicing these unused powers; and that language, the object of this exercise, is a formally grammatical object whose meanings are to be unlocked and mastered.

A more recent approach, audiolingualism, carries with it quite another analogy, one which Herron calls the "Production Metaphor", which links language teaching to the development of marketable and usable skills. The implications here are that schools are factories in which teachers, who are supervisors, oversee the products being moulded, the students, who are essentially passive receptacles for the learning that is poured into them by the teachers. Learning itself is broken down into uncomplicated sub-tasks in order to avoid foul-ups in the production line. Language is seen as a formal, grammatical object, much as in the gymnastic metaphor, and is to be poured into the students bit by bit.

Post-audiolingual approaches, those like Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia that call themselves "humanistic" and "learner-centred", are based on yet another metaphor, which shifts from defining teaching to defining learning. Here, second language learners are equated to children learning their first language, and the focus is on the *environment* in which this happens. Children learn first languages actively and automatically in a natural, informal environment, and if second language learners go about acquiring language in a similar way, as this analogy would have it, then it follows that the language learning environment also permits creative, open-ended language practice in which the meaning and function of language become much more important than the memorization of forms of the language. Further implications of this metaphor are that teachers, who are something like guardians of the child language acquirers, must concentrate on emotional as well as cognitive needs of their students, and the students themselves, unlike students in the gymnastic and industrial allusions, actively go about learning in an environment to which they are intimately attached. The language they learn is a communcative rather than a grammatical construct, whose meanings are not inviolable and self-contained, but are created in the very act of students relating to their environment and to each other. Meaning itself is something that emerges as it is negotiated. This way of looking at language learning is in many ways quite stimulating, for it makes us reconsider many of our assumptions. But there are, as Herron admits, many things about it that are unsatisfactory. The basic equation itself is intuitively jarring. Language learners are *not* children tied completely to the immediate environment and approaching a language for the first time, but are instead experienced language users (no matter how young) with a great deal of common sense about the world, and with knowledge of the linguistic patterns of their first language, as well as of the strategies necessary for using those patterns. A more intuitively accurate metaphor will have to change this basic analogy, or at least change the emphasis of the previous, while retaining the parts that are satisfying. Although the details of such a metaphor are not yet clear, some of its general characteristics would be these: it would again describe language as communicative function rather than grammatical form, and meaning as emerging in students' attempts to communicate with each other. Teachers would still look to emotional as well as cognitive needs of the students, and would provide as natural a language learning environment for them as possible. But this would not be the focus. The central analogy now would describe students not as beginning language learners, but as sophisticated users of language who use what they already know about language and the world to make sense of a new linguistic system, and this will be the organizing principle for classroom practice and further research. This new metaphor, when it is finally articulated, will be the one to characterize CLT.

Interestingly, the three main ingredients of this emerging metaphor--interaction, strategy, negotiation--already underlie much current research in other fields, and this fact suggests the possibility that future CLT practice will draw from very different sorts of empirical and theoretical research, and will allow application on a large scale. In work on second language acquisition, for example, interest is turning from viewing language product and input independently to viewing the interaction of the product and the input. Larson-Freeman says: "Structure in a child's competence may at first develop out of a construction that the child builds jointly with other speakers", and from interactions like these, she continues, it may be that "a child learns how to produce topic-comment constructions" (1980: vi-vii). Hatch feels the same can be said for second language learners. Rather than first learning correct structures, then learning how to apply them in discourse, it is much more likely that the learner "learns how to do conversation ... how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed" (1978:404). Most agree that the learner's developing ability to empathize with an audience affects language learning. Differing strategies are also being investigated as reasons for differences in abilities to acquire language (Rubin 1975, Naiman 1978, Cohen 1981, Tarone 1981). Scarcella notes that:

> *"older second language acquirers utilize conversational strategies to a greater extent. They are better at keeping conversations going ("sustaining the talk") and can use several strategies to improve the comprehensibility of the input they receive, (which means) they are therefore better at getting the comprehensible input they need for acquisition of (1982: 173)... Adult native English speakers do much more negotiation work in conversation with younger L2 learners than they do with older learners. They*

> *provide larger quantities of simple input, a more supportive atmosphere, and a constant check to see that the input a child receives is both attended to and understood (1982: 193).*

Work in linguistics has long been concerned with description of the formal properties of linguistic knowledge rather than with how that knowledge is used, so this work has only been of indirect value to those who want directions for teaching. In fact, Chomsky's squeezing together of speaker with hearer has led to two principles that immediately contradict the basis upon which CLT methods and research are carried out: that monologue rather than dialogue is the linguistic basis of language; and that meanings are independent of an individual's particular experience. Recently, though, some linguists have begun to blur the distinction between the nature of linguistic knowledge and how that knowledge is used by working on cognitive models of language structure and on models of discourse processing. Chief among these is Wallace Chafe, who has been exploring the relationship between language and consciousness, language and memory (Chafe 1970, 1973, 1974, 1980). He wrestles with the problem of how we make meaning from language and how we remember it, and suggests that language users primarily focus on semantic information when they perceive a message. They 'translate' surface structures as quickly as possible into meaningful proposition sequences, then store that information in memory. These stored semantic facts consist of a 'schematic' structure of an Event, Action, Process or State together with a number of participants having expected case roles, and are themselves further integrated into the user's world knowledge, consisting of prototypical situations called Frames and Scripts. These knowledge-based structures are seen to provide a framework for comprehension patterns in discourse, as well as account for inference strategies, which are an extremely important part of discourse processing.

Much of Chafe's work, as well as that of other linguists who have turned to more performance-based research, echoes work in Artificial Intelligence. Researchers here also study underlying processes of discourse production, comprehension and storage, and, as they attempt to model computers after the way the mind works, have had to turn away, just as these linguists have had to, from static models of information storage and retrieval. The old metaphor in this field, which many still accept as common sense, equates human intelligence to "the result of applying rules of inference to a large data base of static facts, a process idealized in mathematical theorem proving" (Waltz 1983: 14). But many AI researchers, not believing this analogy a good one, are looking for new ways of thinking about thinking.

A nice example of this occurs in AI's attempts to develop a chess program. AI researchers have had to shift from a power strategy (a brute-force, trial-and-error search of all possible moves and countermoves) to more efficient "knowledge strategies that more clearly approximate human mental processes and employ heuristics" (Wells 1983) for two reasons: first, they find that chess masters do not consider all possible moves but instead use their vast experience to limit, drastically, the number of choices; second, they realized that it was the way knowledge was stored that gave the chess masters such an advantage. Novices see positions simply as individual pieces on individual squares, but masters see them as clusters of several pieces which they then relate to their previous experience. The masters then recall these chunks just as easily as novices recall individual pieces. This is similar to research in natural language processing which finds that we recall many more words if they are chunked into coherent groups rather than if they are learned individually; and similar to work in cognitive science in general, which finds that new information is retained by aggregating it into more comprehensive chunks, which are then made accessible by linking them in as many ways as possible to information that is already stored.

There is, then, much play between AI and cognitive science: mechanical processes for chunking and linking information imitate human processes of perception and memory; methods of information retrieval reflect human strategies for inference and production. The two fields also share an elusive goal--to be able to model 'common sense'. To do this will require linking perception, reasoning, and action simultaneously, in as yet unknown ways, because ultimately the intelligent use of concepts depends on all three. Research that results from this will have much to say to CLT teachers, who make such 'common sense' performance the goal of their classroom activities.

The CLT metaphor not only aligns ESL teaching with current theory in other fields, it also offers clear directions for future research. Foremost among unresolved issues is the question of what ought to be the starting point in the design and implementation of a second language program. Should it be the development of a communicative methodolgy, or the specification of the content of CLT courses? As Yalden suggests, most energy has gone towards the former (Yalden 1983). But recently, attention has turned to the mapping out of the communicative syllabus itself. Just what sorts of units will be specified as the most efficient, whether these be structural, functional, or more process-oriented strategic units, is certainly unclear at this point, though many sorts have been suggested (Candlin & Breen 1979, Brumfit 1980, Nattinger 1982, Yalden 1982). But whatever decisions are made will come from research in the three areas upon which CLT is based: *Interaction*: how does the learner's developing ability to empathize with an audience affect language learning? what sorts of interactions are possible and what are their effects? *Cognitive Processes*: what are the psychological units of perception and production? how are these integrated into larger structures of knowledge? how can they be incorporated into a class syllabus? *Strategies*: what sorts of strategies do we have for perceiving, producing, learning, and acquiring language? how are these different one from another? how can they best be made use of in the classroom?

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METHODS, APPROACHES, PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES

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The last fifteen years or so have witnessed an explosion in new methods of foreign language teaching, and - particularly in the United States of America - many of these newer approaches have become familiar through presentations and demonstrations at workshops, conferences and other professional gatherings. Further, many new commercial language schools have sprung up, promising learning success thanks to the new teaching methods adopted by the institution in question. Discussion of these methods in the professional literature has not so far been extensive, apart from somewhat subjective accounts of personal experience of these methods, but Stevick (1976) for example has been particularly instrumental in disseminating interest. It is further becoming clear that we now have 'second generation' methods being promulgated: the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning and Total Physical Response have been producing methodological offspring - whether legitimate or otherwise I am not qualified to say - which suggests that these newer impulses may be establishing themselves as a species. The 'fringe methodologies' as they have been called, are therefore pushing more and more into the centre of our attention.

A full assessment may well be premature, and would be far too lengthy an assignment for the confines of this paper. I wish to pursue a more limited goal, namely to present a framework inside which newer methods may be discussed and considered. It is not my intention then to evaluate the variety of new methods *individually*; rather, I wish to argue that there are general considerations we should bear in mind when confronted with currently fashionable methodologies, such that we retain a general view of the foreign language teaching/learning complex, and are not unduly influenced by less central issues, such as presentation or indeed selling techniques, which (possibly inevitably) often accompany the marketing of a new product.

I have so far in the above introductory remarks made rather free use of the terms collocated in my title, and have also used the term 'methodology'. While there is little harm in using these terms more or less interchangeably in some contexts, it is I believe necessary to distinguish between them, if we wish to set about evaluating and comparing newer methodologies. The terms 'methodology', 'principle', 'approach' and 'method' in themselves raise some potentially interesting questions, I believe, which can only be answered if we are reasonably clear as to their meaning. For example, can one concur with a particular approach - let us call it the ABC way - while at the same time not accepting the ABC method? Or can one validly take over in one's teaching aspects of the ABC *method*, without subscribing to the ABC approach? If the ABC package claims to be based on pedagogic principles derived from a specific theory of language teaching and/or learning, can one find the theory plausible, but the method or whatever not so, and vice versa?

In order to tackle questions like these, we clearly have to attempt to define our terms, and then categorize the package - in this case the ABC package - accordingly. A little pedantry is thus in order.

Let us assume that 'methodology' is a rather broad term which indicates a concern with teacher behaviour and the practical and theoretical motives underpinning them. (Cf. Strevens in Halliday, McIntosh & Strevens 1969: 201) Besides being used in this embracing sense, to indicate a field of enquiry, the word 'methodology' may be used in a *particular* sense to designate a particular set of teacher behaviours and motives. Just as we can refer to linguistics, psychology or methodology in general, we can also refer to *Chomskyan* linguistics, behaviourist psychology or 'newer' methodologies. I shall use the term in this specific sense in an informal way only, as the most neutral and general term for designating a set of teacher behaviours and motives.

Principles I take it are general statements of belief concerning what goals, motivations and attitudes should affect teacher behaviours: such principles may be context-sensitive in their formulation (may contain 'if-then' expressions), but are likely not to be. Clearly, a specific methodology will or should be principled in this sense, in that it is based on a set of such beliefs. Principles themselves may be derived from many sources, of which three are perhaps most commonly encountered. They may be derived from the results of scientific research (be that research linguistic, educational, sociological, psychological, etc.); they may also be derived from a general philosophical position or orientation, and of course principles may also derive from practical experience in the teaching profession - the acquired knowledge of what sorts of teacher behaviour seem to work. In practice of course all of these three factors and indeed others may play their part in the development of teaching principles. However, it is clear that principles, if they are to be validated, must at least be open to inspection: I shall assume that principles derive from a (partial) *theory* of language learning and/or language teaching.

A principled teaching methodology may evidence a particular and identifiable orientation, such that it is labelled as evidencing a specific *approach*. It seems that an approach may be *adopted* in the light of the principles accepted, such that particular forms of teaching behaviour follow, or alternatively the approach may be identified post eventu when teaching programmes have been implemented. In either case, an approach is likely to be characterized in terms of the principles or goals which underpin it (hence 'humanistic', 'whole person' or 'communicative' approaches), and is likely in itself to favour certain types of teacher behaviour as opposed ot others, just as a specific approach will imply the acceptance of certain teaching goals, and the rejection of others.

In identifying an approach, however, we are still a long way from identifying an exhaustive set of teaching practices - i.e. a sequenced catalogue of activities such as dictation, role-playing, listening to Bartok, and so on. I prefer to use the concrete and neutral word 'practices' here to designate types of learning/teaching activity, rather than the traditional term 'techniques', as the word 'technique' contains overtones and presuppositions about the nature of teaching which one is not obliged to accept.

We reach this level of specification - the level of practical activities - when we arive at a *method*. I wish to use the term 'method' then to designate a principled methodological approach, which is made tangible in an ordered (or partially ordered) set of teaching practices (and indeed often materials as well). A method, as it were, dares the leap from principle to practice, and may indeed use the former simply to justify the latter - i.e. the leap of faith may be from practice to principle.

I wish to be a little more precise if I can about the distinction between an approach and a method. If we hear of an unfamiliar method, it seems to me, the natural first question is 'OK, what do you *do* then, in this method? What are your practices and procedures?' And one may indeed be given a *demonstration* of that method as an answer, as we witnessed during the Nijmegen colloquium. If you read of or are otherwise confronted with an unfamiliar *approach* however, the first natural question, it seems to me, is not 'What do you *do*, then?' but 'What are your goals? What are your principles?' or suchlike. If one *does* pose the question, 'What do you do then, inside this approach?', one may, if one is lucky, be given an *illustration* of the sort of thing one might do. Now there is a big difference between a demonstration and an illustration. The methods-advocate understands the word 'you' in the question 'What do you do, then?' as the generalized 'one', the approach-advocate is more likely to interpret the 'you' as meaning himself, or indeed to dodge the question by referring to principles, rather than practices.

I use the term 'method', then, to indicate a closed package, with principles, approach and practices tied up together, possibly including materials. Of course, the distincton between method and approach I have drawn will not clearly enable us to characterize all current methodologies as exlusively the one or the other. A specific methodology may indeed be viewed as either: this does not invalidate the distinction, but to my mind makes it particularly necessary that the distinction be upheld.

Having established my terms, I wish to turn to the question of comparing and evaluating different methods. In this undertaking, we should remember that we have, so to speak, been here before, and we should be prepared to learn from our past experiences. In the sixties and seventies an enormous amount of very well thought-out and detailed research was carried out inside the comparative methods paradigm, including for example early work in the United States such as that reported on by Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) or Smith (1970), and continuing up to for example the work in Sweden reported on by Elek and Oskarrson (1975) or in Dunlop's dissertation (1975). Such large-scale, relatively long-term studies were complemented in the same period by numerous small-scale research projects investigating small groups of learners and specific learning tasks, taught via different controlled methods. What did we learn from all this investigation of the relative merits of grammar-translation, audio-visual, audio-lingual, direct, cognitive-code and mixed methodologies? There are several conclusions one might draw: Krashen for example (1982: 154-55) draws the to my mind startling conclusion that all these methods were equally bad, or good, and therefore the results discriminate so little, and/or so inconsistently. Alternatively, one can haggle over the research design in specific projects, and by these means try to reconcile inconsistent and non-discriminating results. The problem of operationalization can also be introduced here - in my terms, the problem as to whether or not specific *methods* or simply different approaches were being compared in this research.

However, one can also consider the strictly logical conclusion that follows from this research, which is that the variable controlled - teaching method - apparently has no direct influence upon learning success. If the question posed by this volume of research is a valid one, so is this interpretation of its results (*cf*. the findings in Caroll 1975).

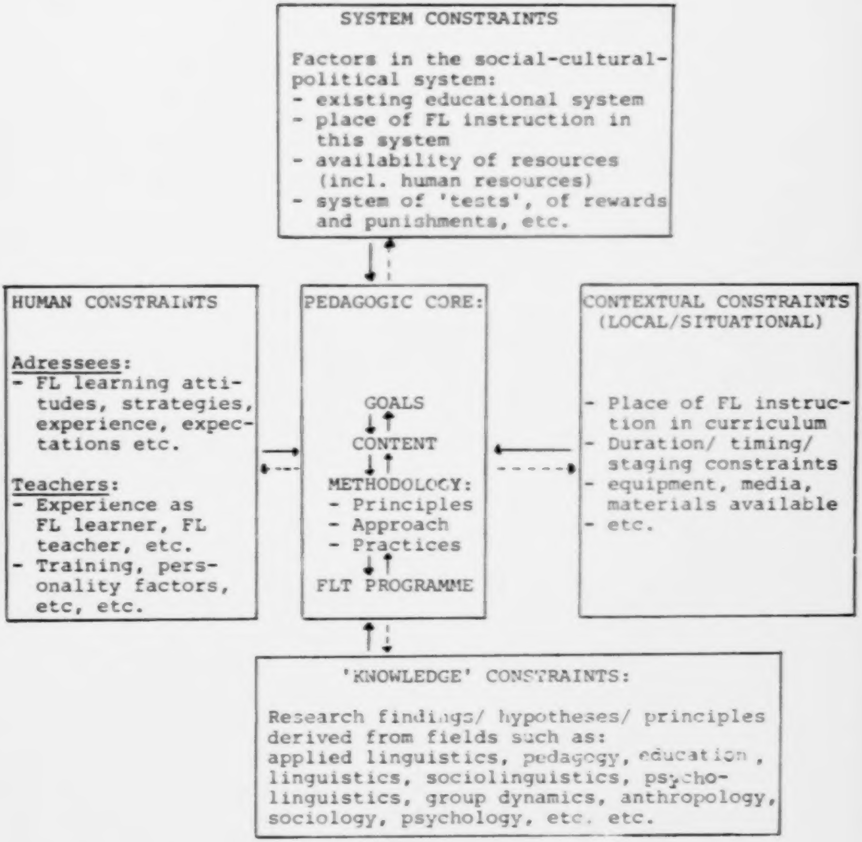
I think we should also accept a conclusion that follows from this - namely that the question asked, 'Which method is more conducive to learning success?' was the wrong question in the first place. The question is misplaced simply because it ignores the multiplicity of factors which impinge on any learning/teaching situation, and which are richly documented in the literature. (See for example Strevens 1977, Chapters 2 & 4; Stern 1982, 1983)

In other words, an appropriate methodology for a specific teaching/learning situation is likely to be a variable negotiated towards by the most active participants - namely teachers and learners, in the light of their expectations, inclinations, previous learning and teaching experience and training, the goals set, and the many external factors which impinge directly or indirectly on any specific teaching/learning encounter. Diagram 1 is an attempt to represent some of these factors graphically. (The 'pedagogic core' is placed in the centre of this complex merely for purposes of exposition inside this paper.) A methodology, then, on this view, acquires such validity as it has *inside* this total framework - you cannot take it out of its context, label it a *method*, and then attempt to evaluate its effectiveness. It may well be that a necessary condition for the discovery of an appropriate methodology is the eschewing of any one method, as to adopt a method - as I am using the term - may be to bypass the critical pedagogic questions, since the method answers them for you.

Let me approach the problem from another perspective, and say something about the non-direct relationship between research findings and pedagogic principles on the one hand, and between principles and practices on the other. Again, we can usefully look to the recent past. One lesson we have surely learnt is that it is dangerous to base principles, methodology or methods on theories derived from some single discipline which concerns itself with part of the teaching/learning complex. In the past, the culprit was allegedly linguistics - in fact of course we were the culprits. I take it we would all agree that some of us - and of course it was not some of *us*, but some of *them* - were somewhat hasty in embracing Structuralism or TG (with maybe their implicit or explicit psychological overtones), and deriving teaching approaches and methodologies - even calling them methods - from such linguistic theories. Now deriving teaching principles and methods from theories taken over from neighbouring disciplines was not naive because the neighbouring discipline in question was linguistic - it was naive in mistaking a part for the whole. In other words, the same theoretical point holds if the insights we embrace derive from Suggestology, Group Therapy practice, or other psychological or therapeutic practices. The use we make of psychological, linguistic or other theories has to be based on our understanding of the total teaching/learning complex, and may have par-

Diagram 1

FL COURSE DEVELOPMENT:
A FRAMEWORK FOR METHODOLOGICAL DECISION


SYSTEM CONSTRAINTS
Factors in the social-cultural-political system:
- existing educational system
- place of FL instruction in this system
- availability of resources (incl. human resources)
- system of 'tests', of rewards and punishments, etc.
HUMAN CONSTRAINTS
Adressees:
- FL learning attitudes, strategies, experience, expectations etc.
Teachers:
- Experience as FL learner, FL teacher, etc.
- Training, personality factors, etc, etc.
PEDAGOGIC CORE:
GOALS
CONTENT
METHODOLOGY:
- Principles
- Approach
- Practices
FLT PROGRAMME
CONTEXTUAL CONSTRAINTS (LOCAL/SITUATIONAL)
- Place of FL instruction in curriculum
- Duration/ timing/ staging constraints
- equipment, media, materials available
- etc.
'KNOWLEDGE' CONSTRAINTS:
Research findings/ hypotheses/ principles derived from fields such as: applied linguistics, pedagogy, education, linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, group dynamics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, etc. etc.

ticular methodological consequences only in the light of this understanding and of the particular circumstances in which we engage in a specific learning task. (This viewpoint is convincingly put in Krumm 1983; see also Krumm 1981)

The shift from research findings in a particular discipline to pedagogic principles cannot therefore be made directly; the shift from pedagogic principles to a teaching method - i.e. to a package marketed largely in terms of the efficacy of its practices - is even more precarious. The acceptability of a particular pedagogic principle is independent of the question of the adoption of a particular *method*, which claims to be based precisely on that principle. It is clear for example that a positive answer is likely to be given following a question of the kind 'Do you favour a humanistic approach to teaching, or a non-humanistic one?'. Similarly, me might ask, 'Should we treat our learners as whole persons, or simply as language acquisiton devices, white rats, etc.?' A question of this kind is of course an empty question, as the question itself makes the value-judgement. But to favour treating learners as persons is a somewhat nebulous principle, and its acceptance implies nothing whatsoever about the appropriateness of methods which claim commitment to such a principle.

Indeed, it seems to me that there is an implicit contradiction between the advocacy of a specific method (in the sense I have adumbrated) and the propagation of a 'humanistic' or 'whole-person' philosophy or pedagogic principle. The reason is that the principle is reduced in the method to a series of pedagogic techniques - being a client with a counsellor, having a prestigious new persona in the foreign-language class, having a comfortable armchair to sit in, and so on. Such pedagogic practices *may* be efficacious in assisting the achievement of a congenial learning environment, but they cannot be equated with the principle or principles on the basis of which such practices are advocated. To make this equation is to *reduce* the principle to a practice. Given a 'humanistic' principle or philosophy, this reduction seems a contradiction of that principle.

The prescribing of non-prescription is not a logical contradiction, given the nature of language, nor is a prescription of the kind 'be yourself'. However, 'be yourself - *my* way' does have a logical affinity to remarks of the kind 'I hate people who do not love their fellow-men!' (Tom Lehrer). The occurrence of terms like 'infantilization' or even 'mind-control' in connection with some recent methodologies is not easy to reconcile with a 'humanistic' philosophy. There is at least a danger here that the rigidity of a method may reduce the person of the learner, that the practice of the method may substitute for the realization of the principle.

In an attempt to illustrate some of the rather general points made above, I wish to exemplify some aspects of approaching a concrete teaching task by outlining briefly the procedures whereby a communication course for German teachers of English was developed in the University of Bochum (West Germany) some years ago (the course is detailed in Edmondson 1982). I do this, not in order to suggest that I have found a teaching method or indeed a teaching approach which is 'new' or 'better', but to demonstrate in a particular case that as far as I can see the question 'Which method shall I use?' is a question that need not be answered as it need not be asked, in the practical business of developing a specific teaching programme.

The course adressees are German university students of English, studying for the most part for a teacher qualification - *Staatsexam*.. These adressees have on average nine years school English teaching behind them, and I think it is fair to say the customary crop of remedial problems and anxieties in consequence. A stimulus to the course conception and development was a research project financed by the *Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft*, and focussing on the conversational skills of precisely such adressees, and those of native speakers of English and of German in similar everyday conversational settings. I cannnot go into details about this research here, nor is it particularly relevant to do so; suffice it to say for our purposes that there was a condiderable body of empirical evidence to suggest that a course such as that developed might be useful and necessary, and a further outcome of the project was some indirect indication as to what conversational skills and strategies might form part of such a course. (Overviews of this research are available in Edmondson, House, Kasper & Stemmer 1980, 1984)

The goals set up were as follows (this and following listings are arbitrarily ordered):

1. To increase the participants' self-confidence and self- perception as speakers and potential teachers of English in conversational and classroom settings.
2. To develop in the participants an awareness of the nature of social interaction, conversational conventions, procedures and strategies in English.
3. To increase the conversational skills and strategic repertoires of the participants.
4. To give participants an oppportunity to reflect on the problems of teaching and learning English as a foreign language via reflection about their own learning experiences and learning strategies during the course.

The course content is loosely but systematically structured, and centres on different types of talk, for which different types of utterance or conversational move and different structural sequences may be typical. A metalanguage to facilitate the handling of this content and the types of reflection aimed at in the goals sketched above accompanies practice in these types of talk such that there is an explicit cognitive component in the course methodology.

Some of the principles underpinning the course are the following:

1. To effectively use a foreign language as a means of communication implies being able to present one's own social person in a different cultural framework, implied by the foreign language itself, independently of the socio-cultural contexts in which one may be called upon to use it. In other words, a presupposition for avoiding 'personality reduction' in the foreign language (see Harder, 1980) is an awareness of one's own cultural norms, as reflected in one's own conversational behaviour in one's L1.
2. Prescription in the area of social behaviour is even less possible than in the area of purely linguistic behaviour - if one accepts this distinction. In other words, English (or German) conversational norms may be hypothesized, but the decision as to whether or not to comply with them can only be taken by the individual learner in

each conversational context. An awareness of these norms however is a necessary basis for such individual decisions.

3. Given the participants' future professional role as teachers, and given their age and educational background, a considerable cognitive component should accompany the actual language practice component of the course, and would possibly provide a basis for further learning beyond the confines of course sessions.
4. Evaluation of participants' conversational performance should be a group undertaking, with self-monitoring and self-perception the ultimate goal. In this respect, Allwright's 'minimal teaching strategy' was to be followed (Allwright 1979).
5. Evaluation of the course itself by participants should be built into its structure, and the course should be flexible enough to take account of the outcomes of such discussions.

The central activities or practices to be found inside the course are:

1. Various forms of role-play.
2. Discussion and analysis of segments of English and German native-speaker conversations.
3. Analysis and discussion of selected recorded role-plays performed by the participants themselves.
4. Various language games and simulations.
5. Discussion of course activities, course structure and learning.

The course was used in various versions before the published form was arrived at: this development has carried on since. Of the few people known to me personally who have made use of this course in their teaching programmes, none has failed to make changes and additions to what is published, and different foci have emerged each time the course has been implemented.

I do not wish to evaluate this work - indeed I think we are right to be cautious regarding evaluations stemming from originators of that which is evaluated. My purpose in this sketch was to delineate the elements of one possible sequence of stages in the development of teaching programme, given the perception of a need, and to demonstrate that to introduce the question 'Which method shall I use?' in this developmental process would seem to be an oversimplification of the issues. (Cf. here for example Allwright's account of a course developed for incoming foreign students at the university of Essex; Allwright 1979)

On both theoretical and practical grounds, therefore, it seems that the question of teaching *method* implies an oversimplification of the pedagogic issues. As Bolinger remarks: 'We should not let the availability of certain materials determine the nature of the course. No responsible doctor diagnoses the disease in terms of the medicines he happens to have on his shelf.' (Bolinger 1971: 154).

In summary, we desperately need empirically established theories of foreign and second language learning, we can learn from the research findings of other diciplines, we should examine especially carefully methodological principles grounded in applied linguistic research, we will of course be interested in teaching practices and concrete types of learning/teaching activities to be found in the work of other practitioners. As potential sources of such desiderata, the methods and approaches we read about and experience are clearly therefore a source of insight, but as closed packages, complete with philosophy, teacher training programmes, principles, practices, and the promise of enlightened success, methods as such must be rejected, and seen inside the perspective of the total teaching/learning complex. There is of course no method that will solve our problems for us, and there never will be. If there ever were, I suggest, human beings (into which category we should indeed include teachers and learners) would be much less stimulating than they are, as would the foreign language teaching task itself.

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DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND EFL METHODOLOGY

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"In a language teaching operation, once the political and economic decisions have been made ... there remain two general questions: *what to teach* and *how to teach it*. These are problems of content and method." (Corder 1973: 139)

The question of what to teach, or the question of content, involves considerations which are both linguistic and sociolinguistic. On the level of syllabus and teaching materials it involves the services of the applied linguist. Any particular solution to the problem of content will lead to the design of a particular set of teaching materials. These will then carry with them a solution of the other question, how to teach, or the question of method. In this way, content will determine method.

Syllabuses are the embodiments of content. A syllabus will specify the items to be learned and the most efficient sequence to learn them in. An 'item in a syllabus' may be characterized either linguistically or sociolinguistically. It is most likely that a linguistic description of the items will lead to a syllabus of the structuralist kind, while a sociolinguistic description will result in a syllabus of the functionalist kind. Whereas a structuralist syllabus is expressed in terms of structures - that is, language forms and their meanings -, a functionalist syllabus is stated in terms of functions - that is, language acts and their communicative intent. A functional syllabus is associated with communicative language teaching (CLT). Apart from a functional (or notional) syllabus, some other characteristics of CLT are the following (Porter 1983: 38):

- a priority of conversational interaction over other modes
- learning based on individual and group needs
- authentic materials
- genuine communication rather than pedagogically motivated and structured activities

But what is genuine communication? What is communication? Communication may be said to have at least the following characteristics (Canale 1983: 3):

- it is a form of social interaction
- it takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts
- it always has a purpose
- it involves authentic language
- it is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes

To sum up (and abbreviate), communication is a form of social interaction which takes place in discourse and involves the use of authentic language.

Clearly this is a definition which begs a number of questions. However, let us accept it for the moment and let us assume that it gives us an idea of what it means to teach language as communication. It may also give us an idea of what it means to *learn* language as communication, although there is the terminological question of whether we should use the word 'learning' or the word 'acquisition'. This distinction between learning and acquisition is, of course, made by Krashen (e.g. 1982). Learning is the 'conscious internalisation of rules' and takes place in a formal setting such as the classroom. Acquisition, on the other hand, is the 'unconscious acquisition of language through being exposed to comprehensible input'. Acquisition results when learners are exposed to a message that they can understand. The condition which is necessary in order for acquisition to take place is meaningful interaction in the target language.

I should like to pursue these matters of principle for a bit before attempting to relate them to discourse analysis.

That part of a person's competence which is achieved through conscious learning Krashen calls the 'learned system'. It can act as a 'Monitor' on the person's verbal output in the target language. If there is sufficient time to apply rules and if the focus is on form rather than on communication, the person is able to modify his utterance - make it more acceptable, more accurate. This monitoring function is the only contribution of the learned system - and thus the only contribution of conscious learning. The thing which is solely responsible for the communicative 'output', and its fluency, is unconscious acquisition and its product, the acquired system.

As I have put it, these hypotheses follow the premisses of communicative language teaching (CLT) to their logical conclusion. We cannot have genuine communication in class, unless we can create there the optimum conditions for language acquisition, as oppposed to language learning. Since what takes place in the classroom is determined by the syllabus and teaching materials, the requirement to create in the classroom the optimum conditions for acquisition brings us back full circle to the question of content and the question of method. The problem may now be formulated as folows: Are the functional syllabus and its methodology adequate to the task of CLT? After all, one hears such comments as the following: "Functional materials are certainly more fun and more motivating, but the students often feel that the functional lesson has no 'meat', and at the end of it they have grasped no principle. They have just learned a collection of useful phrases."

This sums up the situation within CLT at the moment. The materials and methods it brings to the classroom certainly go some way towards implementing its goals - they are more fun and more motivating. However, there is also the objection, supported by evidence, that CLT has not entirely succeeded in achieving its most important goal, which is to make learners acquire a real capacity for genuine communication in the target language.

Recently, there have been proposals to remedy this situation (see e.g., Richards & Smith 1983, Johnson & Porter 1983). One represents a return to the structural syllabus, another tries to breathe new life into the functional approach. A third, interestingly, advocates an entirely new role for the syllabus. In fact, this last approach - called either the procedural syllabus or the process syllabus or the 'deepend strategy' - would mean abandoning the whole notion of a syllabus in the old sense and replacing it by a methodology which emphasizes communicative tasks and learner strategies as the organizing principle.

As one concerned with discourse analysis, I find the notion of a new, 'analytic' syllabus very attractive. It is an attempt to create something which, instead of being a pre-selection and pre-organization of content, would be, emphatically, a *means* towards the achievement of the content. The procedural syllabus, for instance, is an account of the teaching and learning process in terms of communicative tasks to be undertaken. The 'syllabus' specifies what activities will be undertaken in class, but not what language items will be involved. Formal instruction is avoided.

Clearly such a procedural syllabus is an attempt to make students learn through acquisition. As regards the process syllabus, it emphasizes the learner's own capacities for selection and organization of content. In other words, in this case the syllabus is built around the concept of learner strategies - a notion which is of course implicit in the idea of unconscious acquisition. On the whole, the communicative activities of the procedural approach could be seen as an attempt to fulfil the condition of meaningful interaction in the acquisition model. The assumption that this is sufficient to ensure acquisition is, in turn, dependent on the availability and use of learner strategies, as emphasized by the process approach.

If we now try to relate some of these principles to discourse analysis, we can say, first of all, that there is within discourse analysis a particular kind of study which looks upon second and foreign language acquisition in terms analogous to the 'analytic' syllabuses. According to this approach, one first learns to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed (e.g., Hatch 1978). Grammar as it were grows out of discourse. This is an assumption which is both reminiscent of Krashen's hypothesis and at the same time contrary to the formalist view which says that one gradually builds up a repertoire of structures and then, somehow, learns how to put them to use in discourse.

But if it is the case that one first learns how to do discourse and that the syntactic structures then develop out of this, how do those structures actually develop? They cannot simply 'fall out' of the interaction.

There is a basic assumption in this approach, common to all fields of discourse analysis, that interaction is a dynamic process, "between meanings and their formal realizations and between structures and their possible functions" (Breen 1983: 60). For the interlocutors, it is a dynamic process which involves a negotiation of meaning between them. In a second language acquisition situation, the interlocutors together construct an utterance, a 'vertical' structure, which the learner later performs alone, as a 'horizontal' structure. The first kind of structure is a discourse structure: it might consist of some referent introduced to the discourse by the learner and a comment made about that referent by the respondent. These two notions, topic and comment, are at this stage joined together by a semantic relationship which is implicit in the discourse structure.

At a later stage, when the learner performs the utterance alone, he converts the topic + comment structure, realized 'vertically' in the discourse, into a syntactic Noun Phrase + predication structure, realized 'horizontally' as a sentence of the target language.

This is an account of something that happens frequently between an adult native speaker and a child learner in a second language acquisition situation. However, it would not be impossible to arrange a corresponding situation in the classroom if, for instance, the teaching and learning process is organized in terms of communicative tasks, as in the procedural approach. In these communicative tasks, undertaken jointly by teacher and pupil, there would be a primary attention to meaning and communicative outcome - that is, the vertical structure, and only a secondary attention to form - that is, the horizontal structure.

In another modification of the functional syllabus, the deepend strategy (Brumfit 1981), it is possible to arrange a similar sequencing of activities. At Stage 1, the student is asked to do something he has not yet been taught to do; he is made to interact verbally using available resources. This is the stage of vertical structures. Later, at Stage 2, the teacher presents the formal items shown to be necessary. Thus at Stage 2 there is conscious learning, to ensure that the horizontal structures will indeed develop.

So far, we have had one example to show that the goals and methods of discourse analysis fit in well with those evident in some recent developments in CLT methodology. Basically, discourse analysis is an attempt to link linguistic form to meaning and use, and this is also the pedagogic goal of CLT. Both discource analysis and the new methodologies emphasize the primacy of social interaction, genuine communication and authentic language. We have seen that in natural language acquisition syntax develops out of discourse and it may be possible to repeat this sequence in the classroom as well.

However, if it is true that one first learns to do discourse and learns the rules of discourse and if it is true that the grammatical rules are then derived from the discourse rules, then obviously it is necessary in applied linguistics to know more about the characteristics of discourse. This is necessary not only in so far as the elementary level is concerned; it is even more apparent on the intermediate and advanced levels, for it is on those levels, in particular, that learners are required to produce and interpret supra-sentential structures of increasing complexity.

From the point of view of applied linguistics discourse analysis is composed of a wide range of related activities. These all view discourse as a structured event, variable in its spontaneity, to the extent that it is planned or unplanned, whether it is monologic or dialogic, whether it is presented as a narrative or argument, whether it is intended as a work of art or not, and so on. All these parameters have their effect upon the structure of the resultant discourse or text. As an example, consider the continuum of discourses ranging from the extremely 'planned' to extremely 'unplanned' variety, the study of which is one field of discourse linguistics (Ochs 1979).

Unplanned discourse is the spontaneous variety: it lacks forethought and organisational preparation. Planned discourse has been thought out and designed prior to its expression. Most of the discourse we encounter in day-to-day communications is situated at neither extreme; we usually find ourselves producing and listening to language which is relatively planned or relatively unplanned. Written discourse of course tends to be relatively planned, while spoken discourse tends more to the other extreme. This is why an oral version and a written version of the same topic differ in ways which are relatable to the planned/unplanned distinction. For instance, where the oral version will contain a large number of fillers (e.g., 'you know', 'you see', 'I mean', 'mind you', etc.), repetitions, restarts and restatements, the written version will be relatively free of these (de Beaugrande 1983). It is to be understood, however, that such features of everyday talk are normal side-effects of the conditions of spontaneous speaking. What is more, they often serve a functional or strategic purpose (prevent misunderstanding, introduce a reservation, help to gain time, etc.).

The study of the planned/unplanned continuum has important implications for CLT. It is easy to relate it to the learning/ acquisition distinction and the idea of Monitor. As we have seen, the conscious Monitor is a product of the learned system (or formal instruction); it is capable of modifying learner talk, given that there is sufficient time to apply rules, and the emphasis is on grammatical accuracy rather than communicative fluency. In the planned mode these conditions are fulfilled and therefore one would expect a learner to use the monitor in those conditions. This appears indeed to be the case: learners draw upon their knowledge differently according to whether they are engaging in planned or unplanned discourse. In oral discourse learners concentrate more on vocabulary choice because they 'know' that syntactic development is not as important for that variety. Thus it seems that they 'understand' the requirements of these different types of discourse.

However, it is also clear that learners show varying abilities to use more or less highly organized syntax according to the needs of the discourse context. Child learners, for instance, are not 'monitor-users'. This is illustrated by the inability of children in some bilingual programs to use tightly-organized syntax in highly planned written discourse, while showing strong skills in informal, unplanned discourse. On the other hand, there is the familiar complaint that adult learners use 'textbook-sounding' speech in informal interactions, which suggests that adults tend to be 'over-users' of the monitor.

The differences between planned and unplanned discourse show the importance of considering the place of any discourse sample on this continuum. This relates, for instance, to the necessity of using authentic language in CLT. It has been noted (Bennett 1977; see also Larsen-Freeman 1980) that linguists have usually described English using citation forms which reflect the patterns of highly planned discourse - the highly literate spoken language which is the "prerogative of a middle-class, middle-aged, highly literate minority" (Brown 1982: 169). It is open to question whether such a 'norm', produced only by a minority, represents an appropriate standard of attainment for students of English. As discourse analysis shows, spontaneous talk data are usually quite different. In fact, they share many features with non-standard varieties (such as pidgins and creoles).

Discourse analysis of planned and unplanned data clearly relate to many concerns of communicative language teaching in general, as well as to those of EFL methodology in particular. For instance, if it is possible to consider, in a systematic way, the place of a discourse sample on this continuum, then it is easier to suit the linguistic input to the varying needs of groups and individuals. As yet, however, there are still a number of questions which must be solved by analysis. For instance, we need to know much more about the nature of discourse planning - what exactly is involved in this process which is obviously far more complicated than the Monitor theory suggests. In a close analysis, even a short stretch of discourse will show evidence of planning at different levels: lexis, syntax, morphology and discourse. At the discourse level, for instance, one may have to attend to the signals of turn-taking in conversation, in order to be ready to take the floor if necessary. This is just one example of situational demands which can make it difficult for a speaker to attend to the formal (lexical and syntactic) aspects of the message. As a result, we get discourse structures, similar to the vertical structures discussed above, which reflect the speaker's attempts to cope with the situation. For instance, in an effort to take the floor the speaker may use the 'pragmatic' topic-comment structure instead of the 'syntactic' predication, as in the following:

A: Delaney, the Canadian student, remember?
B: mhm
A: er, he should have had his dissertation in in May, you know

Here the initial Noun Phrase ('Delaney, the Canadian student') acts as a kind of place-holder which allows the speaker to take the floor and maintain it.

Control of the planned/unplanned continuum is included in the total communicative competence of an individual. The ability to use fillers and repetitions functionally or to handle the situational demands of spontaneous conversation are just a few examples. In a wider sense, the concept of communicative competence may be divided into three major components, namely sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence (Canale 1983). The sociolinguistic component includes sociocultural rules of use, governing the appropriateness of utterances. For example, a waiter trying to take an order politely in a tasteful restaurant would be speaking inappropriately if he were to ask, 'OK, chump, what are you and this broad gonna eat?' As for strategic competence, it is an ability to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence in some other area of communicative competence. For example, when one does not remember a given word, one compensatory strategy is paraphrase. Although a paraphrase may be a universal strategy, learners must be shown how such a strategy can be implemented in a second or foreign language. Futhermore, learners must be encouraged to use such compensatory strategies (rather than remain silent).

Discourse competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres (Canale 1983: 9). By genre is meant the type of text, e.g. oral and written narrative, an argumentative essay, a scientific report, a business letter and a set of instructions each represent a different genre. Textual unity is achieved through *cohesion* in form and *coherence* in meaning. Cohesion refers to the ways in which utterances are linked structurally; it can facilitate text interpretation. Coherence denotes the relationships among the different meanings in a text, where these meanings can be propositional meanings, illocutionary functions, social attitudes and so on. It is typically the case that the texts which we normally encounter show a minimal amount of formal cohesion. They assume massive amounts of background knowledge and require the recipient to make whatever inferences he is willing to make in order to reach an understanding of what is being conveyed (Brown & Yule 1983: 269-70).

Clearly cohesion and coherence can vary a great deal according to discourse genre. Colloquial conversational exchanges, for instance, can be very elliptical (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 206-07). In CLT there is a priority of conversational interaction over other modes, therefore the types of cohesion and coherence which are typical of colloquial conversation should also be instantiated in classroom data. This is already required by the need to use authentic language as input. A further consideration is the fact that some cohesion and coherence procedures seem to be language-specific, due either to the structure of the language or extralinguistic conventions.

There is one aspect of discourse coherence, in particular, which is clearly language-specific and therefore difficult for non-native speakers to master. This is the use of intonation in spoken discourse to signal importance or newness of content. Both tone and pitch are used to show interactional structure, topic structure and information structure. As regards tone, the basic choice in English is between a falling tone and a falling-rising tone. The falling tone is normally used for informing, for presenting new or corrective material, whereas the falling-rising tone is normally used for 'invoking' - that is, for presenting known material (Brazil, Coulthard & Johns 1980). This basic scheme is combined with the use of pitch. Recent studies (e.g. Brown, Currie & Kenworthy 1980) indicate that pitch (or key) is used to mark co-operation between speakers in structuring a discourse. Thus a speaker who embarks on a new topic begins his utterance high in his pitch range; the second speaker, in his response, also begins his utterance high in his pitch range. This 'echoing' of key is just one example of the role of intonation in discourse structure.

Discourse intonation promises to be an exciting field of study and it points to the important role of intonation in the discourse competence of a speaker of English, for instance. At the same time it is a very good example of the kind of competence which has been considerably neglected in ESL and EFL programmes. Intonational meaning, especially its discoursal meanings, are not adequately accounted for in available teaching materials. Typically, the tones are first practised on a series of unrelated sentences and only after all the tones have been practised in this way does the student confront a text of more than one sentence, where the elements practised are combined. However, the new descriptions of intonation show that its meaning is inseparable from discourse context. Consequently there is the need in language teaching to relate the formal language-specific intonation patterns to connected discourse and thereby relate the major options provided by the intonation system to their contextual implications and communicative value.

It goes without saying that in EFL methodology, for instance, it is not always right to insist on the teaching of spoken English in general, and the teaching of intonation in particular. Learning must be based on individual and group needs. In the actual ordering of items in an intonation syllabus one criterion is clearly inherent difficulty, although it must be recognised that difficulty might vary according to the student's language background, age-group, and individual experience of learning other languages. The task would be easier if contrastive analyses of intonation were available.

As regards the teaching of intonation in the classroom, it is clear that the totality of meaning which is signalled by intonation cannot be accesible to the student simply through interaction with the teacher. As a discourse situation the classroom is one of 'unequal power'. The teacher has the initiating and commenting role. On the whole, only the teacher has a natural access to those opportunities which allow one to assert one's dominance through so called 'marked' tone choices. In such an unequal power situation the student's intonation system is bound to be skewed, unless the student is given opportunities to act in roles other than that of the learner vis-à-vis the teacher.

It is possible that the new developments in CLT syllabus design and teaching materials allow the learner to be better exposed to discourse data of the kind in which the items of the target language are properly contextualised and in which there is more emphasis on the rules of discourse.

In this brief survey I have only had time to suggest a few ways in which discourse analysis could be of use to EFL methodology - methodology which is itself the subject of continual re-assessment. There is one important area of discourse which must be dismissed here with just a brief mention. This is discourse as a work of art. The appreciation of discourse as a work of art is clearly an important pedagogic and educational goal in itself. Moreover, in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, English literature and English poetry provide the best possible touchstone to test the student's interpretive procedures. For this purpose it is necessary, however, to view literature not as an object but as communication. This means that the formal structures of a literary text must be related to their rhetorical functions. When this is done, it will be seen that in literature the relationships between form and function can be extremely complex and provide a rich field for analysis and experimentation. On the advanced level, in particular, literary data can serve as the best possible evidence for the fact that a capacity for genuine communication in a target language can never consist of a mere collection of 'useful phrases' but only of that kind of communicative competence which is able to relate use and meaning in creative and unpredictable ways.

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METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE WORLD: A SURVEY

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At the request of Unesco, an AIMAV group is currently working on a survey of the present situation in language teaching methodology, considering on the one hand the different methods in use, and on the other hand new tendencies. Special consideration is given to audiovisual methods and their internal evolution.

When planning the survey, the group emphasized the different means of gathering information: the analysis of recent literature on the subject; the consultation of publishers and private organisations; and information supplied by a questionnaire. Furthermore, interviews and conversations were held with people in responsible positions.

This paper presents some of the first results of the questionnaire.

1 CONSTRUCTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

All in all, the questionnaire contains 253 questions, divided into 8 sections:

1. General information
2. Appreciation of FLT in the country
3. Mother tongue
4. Foreign language
5. General objectives and conception of education
6. The FL learning public and the schools
7. Training
8. Didactics

The sections 1 to 7 have as their main function the classification and explanation of the answers given in section 8.

The group decided to work with a sample of 40 countries, and has until now received one or more replies from 25 of these. Correspondents in several other countries replied that, for various reasons, it was very difficult to fill in the questionnaire. This was the case in federal or multilingual countries such as the Federal Republic of Germany, the United States and Switzerland.

1.1 *General Information*

In the group's opinion, fundamental environmental, demographic, social and political variables have a determining influence on the situation of language education, as well as on the use of techniques and materials.

This section yielded the highest rate of zero-answers, for the simple reason that the correspondents of the group stated that they had no access to precise data on population, number of children under six, number of citizens receiving a school education, etc. Therefore the group decided to contact some 'generalists' in order to obtain this information. In any case, the fact that access to this kind of information seems difficult and that language teachers do not know these data is interesting in itself.

1.2 *Your general appreciation of foreign language teaching in your country*

The first questions deal with the 'quality' of teaching and teaching conditions. The possible answers range from 'excellent' (5) to 'bad' (1).
In the African countries, material conditions scored 1 or 2. Europeans considered these conditions to be fairly satisfactory. Most of the correspondents considered the teacher training to be insufficient or bad (except for GDR, Bulgaria, Congo, Finland and Belgium).
South Americans and Japanese considered the teaching in private schools to be better than that in state schools. In general, there seems to be a lack of material means.

1.3 *Mother tongue*

One of the most important variables in our study is the *status* of the mother tongue and the different foreign languages.
The proposed definitions of 'mother tongue' can be divided into two groups:

- For the majority of correspondents, the mother tongue, without being directly related to the 'mother', is considered to be acquired in the family environment.
- Others consider the mother tongue to be the first language acquired, without any reference to the family.

For the Bulgarian and Urugayan correspondents, the mother tongue is the language of the country.

In connection with this important variable, it is useful to quote two references.

- A Unesco document (ED/83-CONF/804/2, 72) states,
  'il est proposé que la langue maternelle soit considerée comme la première langue apprise par l'enfant au sein de sa famille';
- Marcel de Grève states
  'Il y a lieu de distinguer:
  1. la langue proprement 'maternelle' ou 'paternelle';
  2. la langue du milieu immédiat;
  3. la langue des voisins;
  4. la variété dialectale ou régionale;
  5. la langue générale ou officielle du pays.'

(Quelques réflexions théoriques et idéologiques préalables a l'organisation d'un enseignement à distance.)

Most of the correspondents answered the questions on the existence of minority languages, but in different ways. The Belgian correspondent considered only German a minority language. Like the Bulgarian, Lebanese and Uruguayan correspondents, he considered only those languages to be minority languages which have an official status.
The majority of European correspondents do not refer to migrants or refugees.

The Congo correspondent wrote: 'Le concept de langue de minorités ne se justifie pas dans le contexte congolais.' On the other hand, the Indian colleague wrote: 'Every language is a minority language in the sense that none of them has more than 50% of the speakers.' India has 1652 mother tongues, of which 47 are used as a language of instruction.

In this section, a series of questions concerned the coordination between mother tongue and FL instruction, and the use of the mother tongue in FL classrooms. With only two exceptions all the correspondents reported that the mother tongue is used in the FL classroom. But at the same time, most of them condemned it in one way or another.
Some examples:
'Too much use of the mother tongue for instructions, orders on the part of the teachers for grammar explanations' (Peru); 'The mother tongue is used when methodologically motivated' (GDR); 'Few schools base their FLT on linguistic-pedagogical methods, i.e. on a contrastive-linguistic analysis adapted to classroom purposes' (Lebanon).
For some countries, e.g. African, the problem is quite specific. Thus the correspondent from the Congo wrote: 'No Congolese child is taught to read and write (alphabétisé) in a Congolese language, and certainly not in his own Congolese language. If there is any coordination at all it exists only between two foreign languages: French and the target language. French is the language of education, but it remains a foreign language.'
One of the Brazilian correspondents commented on this section: 'The foreign language is generally taught without any connection to the rest of the school subjects; hence the idea that foreign language teaching is not obligatory and serves no useful purpose.'

A possible conclusion to be drawn here is that the ideas about integration of the mother tongue and FL instruction (see Eddy Roulet) did not reach the planners, or have been refused by them.

1.4 *Foreign languages*

English is definitely the first foreign language in almost every country. Some correspondents qualified this, e.g. in Brazil: 'English is considered a universal instrument for communication, while French carries an image of culture'. And in the GDR: 'Russian is learned the most, but English is used the most'.
In Africa, African languages did not appear in the lists of foreign languages taught (except for Amharic in Ethiopia). Even Swahili rarely appeared in the questionnaires. Two of the Brazilian correspondents omitted Spanish. On the other hand, Portuguese was absent from the FL lists of Peru and Argentina.
The Finnish correspondent mentioned English, Swedish, Finnish, German, French, Russian, Spanish and Italian. Danish and Norwegian did not figure in his list. It is true that Swedish is the language of communication in this region.
'Professional promotion' was mentioned as the main motivation for the choice of the first foreign language. It seems to be a means of finding jobs, rather than an instrument to be used in professional life.
The correspondent in Japan wrote:
'A foreign language is compulsory at the secondary level. In practice, this is almost always English. One or two foreign languages are required at university level (depending upon the major subject), and again English is the main language. However, the Japanese Ministry of Education insists that "English is not compulsory".'...'English is impor-

tant in professional promotion- assuming that you mean medical and scientific professions. However, knowing a foreign language is no benefit whatsoever in many other professions.'
The GDR correspondent had a similar opinion:
'The knowledge of the above-mentioned foreign languages belongs to the aim of generally educated citizens in the GDR, but it does not really promote professional careers, with the exception of foreign language teachers and interpreters and translators (naturally enough).'

1.5 *General objectives and conception of education*

The first question of this section is the following: 'Do the school programmes, in a general way, define the objectives aimed at? If so, would you like to give one or two examples?' There were four types of answers:

- those who answered in terms of general education; e.g. Bahrain, Kuwait: formation of good citizens;
- those who stuck closely to the language curriculum and programme in the schools;
- those who referred to school programmes without details;
- those who said that there were no general educational objectives (1 Brazilian, New Zealand).

Fifteen questions in this section were concerned with educational practice.

- group work was considered useful and efficient, but difficult to realize for financial and practical reasons. (Group work is not practised in Japan.)
- learning by heart was practised in 15 countries. It was not in Uruguay, Bahrain and Jordan, where it was considered 'useless' and 'bad'. In Sri Lanka, 'learning by heart is not encouraged, although some teachers use it as an easy method of spending teaching time'.
- the systematic copying of texts is practised for various reasons: it is a training in spelling (Brazil, Jordan, Lebanon, GDR); it is useful for beginners (Bulgaria); because of a lack of materials and books (Peru, Ethiopia).
- all the correspondents stated that the students receive homework, except in Ethiopia. From Brazil, one correspondent wrote that there was no homework, a second answered 'yes', and a third one wrote 'sometimes'.

In the comments about this section, one Brazilian correspondent insisted upon the importance of FLT for the development of the country.
In Ethiopia, 'material conditions' result in repetition being the main methodological technique.

1.6 *Didactics*

As for the audio-visuals, the answers from Japan ('for show, not for use') and from Mauritius ('important as a support, but not used as a method') were representative for many others. The audio-visual methodology is not in general use in most of the countries . It seems to be used mainly by private organisations, outside the schools. Often, the use of audio-visual materials was considered to be a need which is not fulfilled for reasons of economy.
On the other hand, the distinction between methodology and hardware was not always very clear.

The following 'new approaches' were mentioned:
- the communicative and functional approach;
- the psychological approach;
- creativity;
- audio-visual (*sic*).

It is interesting to note that Israel mentioned a certain return to translation, and that Belgium, Brazil and the Netherlands mentioned the importance of using aspects of traditional methods.

2 VIEWPOINTS

We would now like to present a selection of the correspondents' viewpoints on methods and trends.

2.1 *Argentina*

The different varieties of audio-oral methodology are very popular. The 'integrated' audio-visual methodology is rarely used. It is sometimes considered to be a new trend, as is the notional-functional approach.

2.2 *Belgium*

There is a tendency to go back to certain traditional ways as a reaction to the exclusive use of audio-visual methodologies. No really new approaches.

2.3 *Brazil*

Audio-visuals are too expensive, except in private schools. Fifty students in one classroom. A new trend is to stress reading activities, and to take into account the cultural identity of the learners.

2.4 *Bulgaria*

Text books have tapes, films, etc. New approaches are being used.

2.5 *Congo*

Up to 150 students in one classroom. There are no audio-visual materials.

2.6 *Ethiopia*

Audio-visuals are too expensive. They are used by the Alliance Française and other private institutions. In 1970, this country had 95% illiterates; it hopes to attain 0% in 1990. Up to 60 students per class.

2.7 *Rwanda*

The authorities have distributed audio-visuals (tapes, cassettes) in all primary and secondary schools, and teachers have been initiated in their use.
There is a strong tendency to adapt teaching to the cultural identity of the students. 40 - 50 students per class.

2.8 *Colombia*

Audio-visual materials are very much used by organisations from foreign countries, but almost unknown in public schools. Teaching methods are mainly traditional and emphasize written language. Only universities use audio-visual materials.

2.9 *Ecuador*

Functional language learning is developing at university level. The communicative approach is slowly gaining ground. 40 students per class. The use of audio-visuals is considered very useful, but many schools do not have them. Suggestopedia is referred to as a new trend.

2.10 *India*

The main method is audio-oral. Audio-visuals are used in an experimental way, and are considered a new approach. Language courses are usually based on Indian themes and culture, with an occasional sprinkling of foreign themes. In this country, 45% of the total teaching time is spent on language teaching.

2.11 *Burundi*

This is one of the countries where FL textbooks use the reality of the country itself as their main topics, rather than the Eiffel tower or London Bridge. Audio-visual materials are too expensive, and are used only at university level. In primary schools (where French is taught), teachers use pictures on a 'chevalet'. The authorities are studying the possibilities for introducing the functional approach, in which the learner would be central.

2.12 *German Democratic Republic*

The entire FL teaching is based on communication (with a predominance of oral methods), and uses audio-visual materials systematically. There are television courses in English and Russian.

2.13 *Japan*

The grammar-translation type of learning is very popular. New approaches are being introduced, but mainly by native speakers. In this country, audio-visual materials are available, but it seems that the Japanese do not use them very often for FL purposes.

2.14 *Cuba*

Audio-visuals seem to be used mainly for French, even though English and Russian are the most important foreign languages (English 70%). The functional approach and Suggestopedia were introduced at an experimental level.

2.15 *Sri Lanka*

The most important new trend is the development of communicative skills. There are no language laboratories and very few audio-visual materials. In the teaching of English (the main foreign language), new methods are being tried out on an experimental basis, but these have not yet reached the schools.

ANALYSE ET PROGRAMMATION DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT DES LANGUES ASSISTE PAR ORDINATEUR: FONDEMENTS, THEORIE ET PRATIQUE.

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0. INTRODUCTION

Dans l'évaluation des méthodes actuelles de l'enseignement des langues, une toute nouvelle technique a fait son apparition dans les dernières années. Il s'agit de l'enseignement des langues assisté par ordinateur (ELO). Cette nouvelle technique est d'abord tributaire du savoir actuel en matière de pédagogie de la langue (maternelle, seconde, technique, etc.), mais aussi, et surtout, du développement vertigineux de l'informatique. En effet, il y a dix ans, l'ordinateur était encore un engin fort onéreux et réservé à des spécialistes. Plusieurs facteurs ont contribué à renverser assez brutalement cette situation:
1. du point de vue de l'équipement - hardware:
(a) l'apparition de micro- et de mini-ordinateurs, ainsi que d'ordinateurs personnels ou individuels, au moins aussi puissants mais beaucoup plus maniables que les anciennes centrales de traitement;
(b) la diminution impressionnante du prix moyen de la configuration standardisée (clavier, écran, unité centrale, unité de disque et imprimante), ceci grâce à la miniaturisation (LSI et VLSI) et, ne l'oublions point, à l'acerbe concurrence que pratiquent les innombrables fabricants pour proposer une gamme attrayante de produits;
2. du point de vue des programmes - software:
le développement de nouveaux langages de programmation supérieurs et relativement simples à apprendre (comme le BASIC et le PASCAL, pour n'en citer que deux), qui sont bien plus accessibles aux non-spécialistes que ce n'est le cas, par exemple, avec le COBOL, le RPG, le PL/1 ou même le FORTRAN.

Cette double évolution a rendu possible le début de la démocratisation de l'informatique, la popularisation de l'ordinateur et l'introduction de cette micro-technologie dans tous les domaines de la vie sociale. Il est donc tout à fait normal que l'ordinateur ait également fait son apparition dans le domaine de l'enseignement, plus particulièrement, dans celui des langues.

Cette innovation dans la méthodologie de l'enseignement des langues sera sans aucun doute profitable aux enseignants et à leurs élèves, mais seulement à condition qu'on n'improvise pas trop! Nous avons déjà vu trop d'écoles qui ont gaspillé beaucoup d'argent à un ordinateur - ou même à plusieurs configurations! - sans en tirer quelque profit pédagogique. L'utilisation de l'ordinateur ne signifie point que tout devienne possible ou qu'on ne puisse s'engager dans de mauvaises voies. Si cette machine merveilleuse peut sans le moindre doute augmenter la qualité de l'arsenal pédagogique, la prudence est mère de sûreté, comme en toutes choses. En outre, si l'ordinateur a déjà été quelque peu démystifié, trop souvent encore il n'est qu'un gadget, ou même un instrument de prestige. Certains oublient trop souvent qu'une seule chose reste primordiale: l'efficacité de l'enseignement. Bref, l'ordinateur, il faut savoir s'en servir!

C'est surtout dans cette perspective que se situe notre contribution. En fonction de l'expérience que nous avons dans le domaine de l'ELO, nous voudrions formuler quelques observations. Dans ce qui suit, nous tenterons de définir les principaux paramètres qui déterminent les conditions d'un ELO efficace. Ensuite, nous formulerons un ensemble de propositions concrètes au sujet de l'emploi de l'ordinateur dans les exercices de langue. Dans cette brève communication, nous devrons malheureusement nous limiter à l'essentiel.

1 L'INFORMATIQUE NOUVELLE ET L'ELO

1.1 *Le seul plan de l'informatique*

(a) Si nous voulons que l'ELO soit vraiment efficace, il faudra que le professeur de langues ait reçu une bonne formation élémentaire en matière d'informatique. Il faudra qu'il soit capable d'évaluer l'équipement qui sera éventuellement acquis, afin qu'il puisse contribuer à la discussion de savoir quel outillage sera le plus adéquat pour les applications qu'il compte introduire (exercices, cours, drill, tests, etc.). Il est du ressort des universités et des écoles normales de fournir aux futurs enseignants les éléments de cette formation élémentaire. Au moment du choix d'une configuration, par exemple, l'enseignant peut se faire assister par des informaticiens, mais aussi par des spécialistes en pédagogie générale, qui, eux aussi, devront recevoir une formation élémentaire dans ce domaine.
(b) Afin que le professeur ne soit pas à la merci des seuls programmes qui lui sont proposés par les producteurs de soft-ware, il n'est aucunement inutile qu'il soit capable d'écrire lui-même des programmes - encore qu'on peut s'attendre à ce que dans l'avenir, la plupart des programmes soient écrits par des professeurs de langues/informaticiens, spécialistes en la matière. Mais ceux qui le désirent doivent avoir la possibilité de s'initier à la programmation: ainsi, l'enseignant pourra constituer lui-même ses programmes en fonction de ses propres cours, du niveau d'enseignement, du contenu de la matière, etc. En outre, il jouira d'une bien plus grande liberté dans les applications qu'il désire introduire.

1.2 *Le plan de l'ELO*

(a) Il est utile que le professeur de langues ait, dans sa formation, un aperçu des multiples possibilités d'application de l'ELO, des avantages ou des dangers de ces diverses applications, surtout dans une perspective pédagogique. Il ne suffit pas, en effet, de savoir écrire un programme, encore faut-il que ce programme soit pédagogiquement bien fondé. Ici, la collaboration entre l'informaticien, l'enseignant - homme de la pratique - et le spécialiste en pédagogie s'impose.

(b) L'évolution actuelle dans le domaine du hardware et du software est tellement rapide que les enseignants devraient constamment être informés des nouvelles applications dans ce domaine (nouvel équipement, systèmes de programmation, nouvelles techniques d'ELO, cirtères d'efficacité, expériences en cours, etc.). Cette formation professionelle prolongée est essentiellement du ressort des universités et des chercheurs en la matière: ceux-ci peuvent informer les enseignants dans les revues spécialisées ou par des stages de formation professionelle.

(c) Enfin, il faudra que l'ELO soit fondé sur une coordination des efforts dans ce domaine, ainsi que sur un échange efficace d'informations. Il nous apparaît que les expériences actuelles en cours ne profitent pas assez aux écoles qui désirent se lancer dans l'ELO. A ce sujet, il serait utile qu'il existe des centres d'information qui recueillent la liste des institutions appliquant l'ELO, les types d'applications, les rapports sur les diverses expériences en cours, les programmes existants, et que ces centres puissent fournir aux écoles toutes les informations nécessaires à ce sujet. Ceci constituerait une énorme économie pour les écoles. Ces centres d'information nationaux ou régionaux sont absolument nécessaires pour assister les écoles et les enseignants, ainsi que pour guider et pour suivre la recherche scientifique dans ce domaine. Ici encore, les universités ou les grandes écoles normales ont une tâche importante et fort utile à assumer.

2. LA PRATIQUE

Si les considérations préalables sont surtout d'ordre théorique et concernent l'organisation générale de l'ELO, les constatations qui suivent sont de nature tout à fait pratique. Nous voudrions communiquer ici un ensemble d'idées, fondées sur la pratique, concernant l'utilisation de l'ordinateur dans le domaine des exercices de langue (exercices et drills).

Dans ce qui suit, nous tenterons d'expliciter la structure fondamentale à laquelle devrait correspondre tout produit-programme (ensemble de programmes structuré), visant à faire exécuter par des étudiants des exercices, des tests ou des drills. Il s'agit d'une structure de programmation appelée *multi-users-programming* (programme à utilisation plurielle: PUP) avec une grande souplesse. Cette structure sera illustrée par une démonstration de deux programmes opérationnels: HELP et DRILL. HELP est un PUP qui permet de faire exécuter des exercices de divers types; DRILL permet aux étudiants de se faire la main dans la conjugaison des verbes. Ces programmes sont applicables pour toutes les langues vivantes (français, néerlandais, allemand, anglais, italien, espagnol, portugais, etc.) qui ne requièrent pas de caractères particuliers. Le schéma général de cette structure de programmation figure à la page suivante.

Ce PUP comporte trois parties: un programme superviseur (PS) et un programme d'analyse des fautes (AF), destinés à l'enseignant. La troisième partie est l'exercice (EX), destiné aux élèves. Toutes les informations sont stockées ou lues sur la diskette.

2.1 *Le programme superviseur*

Ce PS doit permettre d'exécuter les opérations suivantes:

1. initialiser le système entier: placer tous les compteurs à zéro et éventuellement enlever les exercices superflus;
2. la confection d'exercices de types divers: à question identique, à questions différentes ou à questions à choix multiple (multiple choice);

3. le contrôle et l'adaptation des compteurs;
4. la correction d'une question d'un exercice particulier ou la correction d'un exercice complet;
5. l'impression des questions et des réponses d'un exercice (sur imprimante et sur écran);
6. l'appel du catalogue de la diskette;
7. l'impression de la liste des exercices disponibles (sur imprimante et sur écran);
8. l'appel de la mémoire disponible dans le système.

2.2 *Le programme d'exercices*

Ce programme doit permettre les opérations suivantes:

1. l'identification éventuelle de l'étudiant qui fait un exercice (nom, date);
2. le choix de l'exercice dans le menu;
3. l'exécution de l'exercice;
4. l'appel des instructions;
5. l'appel du score et de la correction;
6. refaire l'exercice ou faire un autre exercice;
7. le stockage des données d'identification, des fautes et du score (sur diskette).

2.3 *Le programme d'analyse des fautes*

L'AF permettra les opérations suivantes:

1. appel de l'aperçu des divers compteurs;
2. analyse des fautes pour tous les étudiants (avec indication des fautes commises par cet étudiant, et du score);
3. analyse des fautes classées par exercice (avec indication du nombre de fautes moyen et du nombre de fautes moyen par question);
4. analyse des fautes pour un seul étudiant au choix;
5. analyse des fautes pour un seul exercice au choix;
6. aperçu de toutes les analyses des fautes sous forme de graphiques ou d'histogrammes;
7. appel de listes alphabétiques générales ou par exercice.

2.4 *Caractéristiques de cette structure modulaire*

2.4.1 *Au niveau du hardware et du software*

1. Une telle structure de programmation ne pose pas de grandes exigences à l'équipement ni à la programmation: elle est applicable sur de petits systèmes de 48 ou de 64 Kbyte (Apple IIe, Tandy, Wang, etc.)
2. Ce système de PUP intégré est un système indépendant.
3. Si notre programme a été écrit pour l'Apple IIe, il est adaptable à n'importe quel système d'une autre marque, avec de légères modifications en fonction des dialectes de programmation.
4. Une unité de lecture de disque suffit.
5. Il est possible de concevoir un grand nombre d'exercices de types divers (éventuellement même de se constituer une bibliothèque de diskettes d'exercices).
6. Maniement simple et souple, toujours prêt pour usage.
7. Possibilité d'intégrer le facteur temps dans l'EX.

2.4.2 *Pour l'enseignant*

1. Le mot de passe protège les informations et les programmes auxquels l'étudiant n'a pas accès.
2. Grande liberté dans la constitution des exercices.
3. Disponibilité permanente d'un aperçu de la situation du système, et des résultats de la classe ou d'un étudiant.
4. Utilisable par des collègues non formés en informatique.
5. Applicable à n'importe quelle langue (même à d'autres branches ou matières).
6. Grande valeur diagnostique (individuelle, classicale).
7. Utilisable à tous les niveaux d'enseignement (du primaire à l'université).

2.4.3 *Pour l'étudiant/l'élève*

1. Toutes les instructions sont fournies par le système.
2. Très maniable et agréable dans l'utilisation.
3. Correction et score immédiatement disponibles (éventuellement sur imprimante).
4. Il fera des exercices quand il le désire et tant qu'il le désire.

2.4.4 *Considérations générales*

Le problème le plus épineux est celui de savoir quels exercices seront mis dans l'ordinateur ainsi que l'élaboration des questions. Ce sont des problèmes qui doivent être étudiès à fond et qui ne sont aucunement à sous-estimer. Si la structure modulaire offre une grande liberté à l'enseignant, elle limite le type d'exercices aux niveaux de la phrase et du mot. Pour des exercices de texte, il faut une autre structure de programmation. Il existe aussi de nombreuses variantes dans la structure PUP proposée: on peut ne pas demander le nom de l'étudiant (drill), ne pas donner la correction, simplement indiquer les fautes, renvoyer à la grammaire, etc. Enfin, il faudra également étudier de très près l'application pratique de l'ELO en classe, l'organisation de la classe d'ordinateurs et le nombre d'heures consacré à l'ELO.

3 CONCLUSIONS

Dans cette communication, nous avons voulu souligner
(1) que les futurs enseignants de langues doivent être formés en informatique, plus particulièrement à l'application de cette technologie à l'ELO; dans ce sens, les universités et les grandes écoles normales doivent adapter leurs programmes;
(2) l'élaboration de programmes, en l'occurrence d'exercices de langue, doit satisfaire à certaines conditions de base qui garantissent une exploitation maximale des systèmes informatiques, une grande liberté à l'enseignant, une souplesse et une efficacité des plus grandes dans le maniement des ordinateurs par l'enseignant et par l'élève, bref, *une réelle amélioration de l'enseignement des langues*.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION (CALI): SCIENTIFIC BASIS AND EXTENSION POTENTIAL

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1 EXAMPLES

For those unfamiliar with computer-assisted language instruction (CALI), this paper first gives a few practical examples for orientation. One is 'Montevidisco', a highly complex and vivid conversational simulation using videodisc technology (Schneider & Bennion 1983). The second example presents a textual vocabulary and grammar training program, stressing the personal help a student can receive from the computer.

2 INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

2.1 Obstacles

A number of obstacles hamper a complete and objective evaluation of the state-of-the-art of CALI.

2.1.1 First obstacle: suspicion and threshold fear

The tradition to present the computer boom in education as an event of gigantic proportions is no doubt based on undeniable facts, but it is also a suggestive and therefore not altogether harmless means to elicit certain reactions. One quickly wants to convince the public that the computer boom in education is a mighty battering ram and that all had better join in, lest they might find themselves, within a few years, hopelessly out of date or even illiterate. This suggestive propaganda, especially when directed towards a humanities public, may touch the wrong string. Its very character can cause those who view technology and automation with a fundamental suspicion or with the threshold fear of the outsider, to adopt a very defensive attitude.

2.1.2 Second obstacle: the turmoil of developments

A wide variety of CALI programs are being developed and implemented in many research centres, in numerous schools and computer clubs. Until the mid-seventies, articles on CALI in journals and compilations could all be analyzed carefully: since then it has become increasingly difficult to keep abreast of the tidal wave of CALI publications, for one thing because they appear in three divergent fields, linguistics, didactic and technological. Untill 1978, CALI producers formed a rather closely-knit group, because they belonged to an elite using mainframe computers. The emergence of the micro-computer, however, has caused a proliferation of small projects and a fragmentation of efforts.

2.1.3 Third obstacle: the trivial CALI programs

It would be a major mistake if someone were to evaluate CALI by one of its trivial realisations, encountered by chance in a school or at a computer demo. It is a fact that many existing CALI programs are very weak, because of inadequate application of didactic criteria and because of the lack of creative language training.

2.1.4 Fourth obstacle: the lack of trivalent specialists

CALI needs coordinating specialists in the fields of programming, education and linguistics. The few successful combinations remain limited to research centres, whose facilities are so extensive that the possibilities for implementation on a large scale become very small. On the other hand, one should note a growing movement at the lowest level. Some language teachers, who have mastered their subject matter, and who have teaching experience to draw on, are becoming well-versed on their microcomputers. They sometimes produce remarkable CALI programs which run on simple hardware. However, these productions remain sporadic and do not easily reach a larger market.

2.2 Differences with the audio revolution

It is becoming popular, in the profession, to compare the CALI development with the audio revolution of the fifties and sixties and to point out the similarities: technological innovations, commercials push-tactics, lack of adapted course-ware, and lack of proper teacher training. But the differences are also fundamental: CALI is part of the Third Industrial Revolution, making it a fractional part of an extensive movement touching the whole of our society; it is also part of computer-assisted instruction as such, a large instruction movement; its adaptiveness prevents its becoming tied to a specific method; finally, its controlled expansion provides us with this turmoil of developments we already mentioned.

3 SCIENTIFIC BASIS

3.1 First applications in the sixties

The first CALI applications go back to the sixties, when programmed materials for the teaching of German for beginners were developed at the State University of New York at Stony Brook (Adams *et al*. 1968, Adams 1969, Adams & Rosenbaum 1969, Morrison & Adams 1968, Ruplin & Russell 1968, Ruplin 1971). At the same time, the University of Stanford was working on similar automated language instruction techniques (Crothers & Suppes 1967). A host of others emerged, especially in the United States (references in Glaser 1965, see also Turner 1970, Allen 1972a, 1972b, 1972c, Poulter 1969, Barrutia 1969, Malkoc 1971), but also in Japan (Fujimura 1969) and Britain (Alford 1971).

Most of these first-generation CALI applications grew out of projects in other educational areas and the transfer to language learning was clearly coloured by the basic CAI techniques of the time, by the use of mainframe computers, and by the principles of audio methodologies. Nevertheless, their contributions to the field were significant as a pioneering endeavour.

3.2 Mushrooming in the seventies

It would be impossible to give even a summarized survey of all the CALI projects and developments in the seventies. This paper mentions a few to give a taste of the academic engagement in various locations (Ahmad 1978a, 1978b, Birdsong 1979, Clausing 1974, 1975, Davies 1980a, 1980b, Desch 1973, Farrington 1981, Kalikow 1972,1973, Kenning & Kenning 1981, Langr & Seybolt 1976, Last 1979a, 1979b, 1979c, 1980, 1982, Manwell 1973, Olsen 1980). A register on current research on CALI is maintained by CILT (Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research) and regular conferences on the subjects have been held since 1980.

As to a concise evaluation of the general trend of the seventies, it appears that most applications remain at the level of an automated quizzer, mainly using multiple-choice test items or gap-filling exercises: conjugations, syntactical agreements, choice of articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, particles, etc. (Balser 1978, Collett 1980, 1982, Haas 1976, Langr 1976, Lavine & Fechter 1981, McKay 1980, Smith 1976, Terry 1977a, 1977b). Numerous CALI programs also deal with spelling and word-by-word vocabulary training (Atkinson 1974, Collett 1980, Engel & Andriessen 1981, Keller 1981, Kenner 1980).

These hundreds of programs all have a certain value. From the student's point of view, each of these programs can help him to attain specific goals, although in each case the question remains whether efficient didactic criteria for the particular learning situation were used or not. From the producer's point of view, these programs can be seen as necessary steps to get acquainted with basic aspects of CALI, to feel the excitement of the novelty, to publish experiences from which others can learn. However, one must recognize that most of these applications limit the use of the computer to a blind feedback function, which can quickly become boring and rather inefficient, and where transferability to communicative skills remains an open question.
What is even more problematic is that now, in the eighties, thousands of new producers are working out, painstakingly, their own primitive applications, earnestly reinventing the wheel, and often even presenting their reinventions as original endeavours. This problem is largely the result of the introduction of the first and second generation micro-computers. The democratization of the simple micro-computer has actually led to an enormous recession in CALI, confronting us continually with trivial productions.

3.3 Deepening developments in various strategies

These developments are characterized by a constant search for the full use of the interactive power of the computer. This paper mentions some of the more important ones: optimalisation based on the profile of a students's previous performance (Beard *et al.* 1975); emphasis on the structuring and coding of the data base so that the computer can self-generate a wide range of exercises (Scherr & Robinson 1980); the effectiveness of structural and semantic computer practice across various levels of verbal aptitude (Schaeffer 1981); the use of sustaining peripherals such as recordings, random-access slide projectors, videodiscs (McEwen 1977, Schneider & Bennion 1983). Specific research in maximal interplay possibilities also led to other innovative features, such as routines to input familiar contextual situations (Allee & Williams 1980); production-at-command (Decker 1976); ELIZA-type simulated conversation (Underwood 1982).

3.4 The case of error analysis

One of the most challenging aspects of CALI is the system by which the computer judges the respons of a student and uses this judgement to help the student. This paper first describes the most common systems: the perfect match and the partial match. These systems fail when the student has to input longer and more creative answers - and these are vital for fully efficient CALI. Since a computer is able to perform much more complicated tasks than simple matching, quite a large number of researchers have worked over the last few years on new techniques of error analysis. The computer should not only be able to analyse mistakes in depth, but should also be able to interact with the student on his error, to help him become aware of his error, to help him recall certain rules, to guide him to new understanding, and especially to teach methods of thought and analysis. At the same time the computer should allow the student to initiate such interaction himself by asking the program questions and getting bits of information in order to solve the problem concerned.

A further step in this scientific search was the so-called pattern markup, whereby the program pinpoints the precise location of an error in a sentence by comparing it with a pre-coded right answer, and gives appropriate indications (Pusack 1982, 1983). Another important step was the development of error anticipation, as a plural matching system, running through a list of known wrong answers and using these to implement certain branchings (*cf*. Pusack 1983, Marty 1982). Most researchers, however, have placed their hopes on an error analysis system based on the structure of the language. The most important of these is parsing, in which the computer parses the student's response in its morphological and syntactical constituents (Allen 1972, Decker 1976, Markosian & Ager 1983, Nelson *et al*. 1976, Olmsted 1975, Urion 1970).

Apart from the matter of techniques, the real question may well be an educational one: should the student be scrutinized by the machine? In CALI, especially if it presents remedial programs, strict performance evaluation during the learning process has become questionable. Some of the better CALI programs have therefore emphasized didactic procedures placing more responsibility on the learner (Kidd & Holmes 1982, Marty 1981).

3.5 PLATO and TICCIT

This paper describes briefly these two large CAI systems under a separate heading, although most of their features are mentioned under the various headings of the 'scientific basis' of CALI. Many references to articles on the CALI programs of PLATO and TICCIT are added.

3.6 Didactic issues in instructional design

What are the instructional designs in which we should frame CALI? The need for optimal models based on sound educational theory is becoming acute. A first area of research pertains to the relation with the variety of learning-models which have been developed for CAI in general, but which are not always adequate when it comes to transferability to communicative skills. We need to apply here some of the optimization research which has been done to understand what kind of practice makes a skill strong and automatic. A second area deals with the use of CALI for any type of language learing - which is possible in theory. However, as a result of a number of restrictions, CALI is surrounded by compelling structures. A third area has to do with the taxonomical approach to language practicing - the construction of a wide and well-balanced spectrum of potential exercises. It is amazing to see how much present CALI programs lack in variety from a taxonomical point of view (*cf*. Hall *et al*. 1981). A fourth area concentrates on the building-in of flexible boundaries between first instruction, practicing, remedial instruction, and remedial practicing. A good program must be internally flexible in a number of gradations.

3.7 Research in aptitudinal, attitudinal and free-choice aspects

Little scientific work has been done up to now about *aptitudinal* variables of the learner in his interaction with a CALI program. One of the few studies we know of is based on error rate and interaction rate and supports a model for predicting the performance of superior language students (Curtin *et al*. 1976). Questionnaires evaluating students' attitudes have been studied (Taylor 1979, Leidy *et al*. 1980): positive and negative attitudes turned out to be connected with the physical setting of the equipment, with easy access, with the quality of the orientation and befriending phase, and especially with the quality and the adjustment of the courseware.

A fundamental didactic issue in the assessment of attitudes concerns the nature of the interaction between student and machine. A second aspect concerns the socializing relation: experience shows that the computer, however paradoxical this may seem to outsiders, can fulfil a strong socializing function. A third aspect has to do with the motivation which the course-ware itself helps to provide. Fourth, the input of *free-choice* is probably the strongest development in CALI, entailing the abandonment of structured segments which the students were obliged to follow until a specific number of correct answers has been reached. More success is achieved if the students can enter and leave segments at their own discretion (Taylor 1979, McEwen 1977, Marty 1981). A number of practical didactic recommendations in this respect are given.

3.8 Efficiency evaluations

Marty has very aptly criticized the question 'Can we measure the effectiveness of CALI?' by stating that this question is as difficult to answer as 'How do you measure the effectiveness of the university library?' Everything depends on the willingness and the desire of the student to learn (Marty 1981). Still, quite a large number of efficiency studies have shown that CALI always results in increased retention, that it helps poorly motivated students to work on a higher level of concentration, that it boosts superior language students, Yielding significant progress in various areas. The data supporting these studies are often impressive (Camstra 1980, Curtin 1981, Schaeffer 1981, Taylor 1979, 1982).

4 EXTENSION POTENTIAL

4.1 Extension in a widening gap

There is a risk that the gap between the technological world of engineers, programmers, computer companies and software produres on the one hand, and the instructional community on the other is widening quickly. An uncontrolled boom in 'exciting' language packages is probably on its way, perhaps coupled with the development and commercialization of audio- and video-components in micros. The ongoing story of computer games, with their incredible expansion and growing sophistication, is a case in point. This paper discusses some of the possible consequences: poorly constructed language packages will disappoint the public and contribute to its negative feelings towards foreign language learning: excellent language packages, on the other hand, may isolate the profession from the action field of foreign language learning.

4.2 Strategies for the present

It seems important for language educators to get more involved in the construction and control of this tool, which cannot be dodged any more and which shows enough promise to deserve full attention. In order to ensure its optimalization, the areas to concentrate on would appear to be: better information on CALI to diminish negative attitudes and misconceptions among the profession itself; consumer advice as to micros suitable for CALI; democratization of programming through practicable languages and instructional drives; research and training in didactic principles related to the maximal potential of computerized interaction; better co-ordination between all the people involved; development of software adapted to specific regular courses; and thorough in-service teacher training.

4.3 Utopia?

CALI is not promising Utopia for a near future - certainly not on the brink of '1984'. But there are utopian elements in it, and it is wise to be aware of this potential. Videodisc technology, advancing research in artifical intelligence, synthetic speech, compressed digital speech - all these should have the attention of a profession interested in the future of multi-lingual communication around the world.

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This text is a summary. The complete text can be requested from the author.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED VOCABULARY LEARNING - A HUMANISTIC PERSPECTIVE

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INTRODUCTION

Computer-assisted language learning has been in existence for over twenty years - Licklider (1962) describes interesting work in teaching German vocabulary, for instance - but it is only recently that it has begun to make much impact on language teaching, in the U.K. at least. There are probably a number of factors that lead to the suspiciousness and hostility which some teachers show to the new medium. They include factors in the domain of methodology (dull, manipulative, undemanding tasks, sometimes even coupled with an insistence on the student reaching a 'criterion level' before he can proceed to the next stage) and in the affective domain (cf. Maslow 1970). This paper starts with the latter, and argues that the success of CAL depends to a considerable degree on how students and teachers perceive it and feel about it. For example, do the students see it as an omniscient and remorseless 'Drillmaster', marching them through the conjugations, or as a 'Friend', offering them intriguing tasks to carry out and help, where necessary, to complete them satisfactorily? As for the teachers, do they perceive the computer as a threat, to their identities or their job security, as another technological gimmick, as an aid or as what? The answers to these questions have considerable methodological implications.

When thinking about CAL in the area of vocabulary learning, then, one needs some sort of general view of the needs of both students and teachers as human beings. This might incorporate the work in 'needs analysis' of such writers as Munby (1978), Richterich and Chancerel (1980) or Van Ek and Alexander (1980), but pay greater attention than they do to the whole domain of attitudes and feelings. It seems fairly clear, though not always remembered, that appropriate attitudes and motivation are a necessary precondition for language learning to take place (Gardner 1979).

THE STUDENT

The needs of the student are considered under four overlapping and interrelated headings:

- brainwork
- investment

- control
- meaningfulness

Brainwork

A central task of the language teacher is to get her students to work and think in the language they are learning. This suggests that CAL vocabulary work should be intellectually demanding and fully engage the problem-solving and other reasoning powers of the learner. A good example of this 'absorbingness' is John Higgins' (1982) 'STORYBOARD' which displays a text with the punctuation kept but all the letters replaced by dashes. The student has to guess the missing words. If he is right, they appear in the appropriate place. If he is wrong, nothing happens. CAL wordgames such as 'Odd Man Out' (identifying the misfit), 'SNAP' (in which the student has to press a key when, say, 'ice-cream' and 'glace' appear on the screen simultaneously) are available (Jones 1982). (A useful set of reviews of Jones' 'Wordpack' and other CAL Language programmes available commercially is to be found in *British Journal of Language Teaching*, XXI, no 1, Spring 1983). In these games, the student needs to concentrate hard, pitting his wits against the machine, if he is to get a good score. He is working for himself (not for teacher), absorbed in his task, and obliged to use the language he is learning if he is to perform the task. While doing the CAL practice, he is processing a good deal of language, and not just at a superficial level, if he finds the task motivating. In terms of Craik and Lockhart's (1972) model, his retention of the linguistic items is likely to be a function of the depth of processing. That is to say, the more meaningful and personally relevant the task is to him, the more he is personally involved in the learning task, and the more associations he makes between the task and his own private life and interests, then the more he is likely to learn and to retain. (See also Stevick 1976 for discussion of this point).

Investment

The absorption of the learner in the task in hand gives an indication of his self-investment in his learning (cf. Curran 1972). As has been said, the more the learner is committed to his learning, the more progress one expects him to make. However, in a field like foreign language learning in which drill and manipulation have been for so long seen as essential, a learner may well not want to commit himself to the learning task unless it offers him challenge and stimulation, and, in particular, the opportunity to use his own judgement and creative powers. Ideally, CAL would encourage the learner to innovate linguistically, to experiment with new ways of expressing himself as he 'converses' with the computer in a natural language. Although the state of the art has not yet reached that degree of sophistication, a number of programmes do nevertheless exist which involve the learner's gaming and risk-taking faculties and give him some scope for experiment. Borrowing techniques from Arcade Games, they require the learner to press a key very quickly (John's TWO STICKS), or to gamble on his ability to guess the correct answer. An example of the latter is this writer's BET, a sort of cloze game, in which the student chooses a text which is then displayed, but with one word randomly deleted in each of the first nine lines. The nine words which have been extracted are displayed at the bottom, in jumbled order. In essence, this is another gap-filling test, but one with a gambling option. The students start off with $1000 and decide how much to gamble of their capital on each question. This gambling facility (an idea borrowed from the work of Tim Johns, as also was the use of jumbling; cf. Johns 1981) is a powerful motivator for some students who make careful calculations of how much to stake depending on their degree of certainty over the answer. A minority of students, however, prefer not to use this gambling facility, and it seems best kept as an option.

Control

In the various CAL types which have been mentioned, the student has a degree of control over what happens. He is invited to make a number of decisions over how he goes through the programme. DISCLOSE is an example of this. In it, the student's task is to 'disclose' a text word by word. The procedure is as follows:

1. The student presses 'S' to start, and is asked if he wants Instructions.

2. He is asked if he wants his score shown. As has been suggested, students differ on this.

3. He is asked to choose a text to work with, and then whether he wants to see the entire text before beginning. If he chooses to see it, it stays on the screen until he presses 'C' to continue with the game. As with most forms of CAL practice, the student controls his learning rate.

4. The game now begins. Eight words or punctuation marks are displayed on the left of the screen. They are the first eight words, commas etc. of the text, jumbled up in random order. The student presses certain keys to move an arrow up or down beside the list until he comes to (he hopes) the first word of the text, and then presses the space-bar. If he is right, the word appears in the appropriate place at the top of the screen. If he is wrong, nothing happens. (The programme does not say 'No, John, that's wrong. Please try again.' which is a little demeaning).

5. If the student gets stuck, he can press 'T' for the whole text to be shown, but, if he has chosen the scoring option, it costs him two points.

This is a simple little game, but nevertheless one in which the student can exercise a degree of control over his learning environment. As with bio-feedback, these decisions can be of absorbing interest to the learner. This writer is suspicious of CAL systems in which the learner is rigidly trapped within the confines of a complex teaching algorithm produced by course designers, and not himself allowed to exercise control over his own learning.

Meaningfulness

Meaningfulness is here interpreted in two ways. At the level of language, it is argued that CAL work should in general be focussed on the apprehension and expression of meanings, which is an argument for studying vocabulary in contexts longer than a sentence. Furthermore, students should actually understand the language they are working with. Dakin's (1972) attack on 'meaningless' drills came at a time when audio-lingualism was more influential than it is today; but his warnings still deserve our attention. This argument for the centrality of meaning is related to the brainwork and depth of processing arguments: efficient learning is more likely to result if the learner is deeply involved in a task he understands. On a methodological level, this suggests another maxim: 'Don't set a task without offering the student help if he is stuck'. In the case of the DISCLOSE program, described above, the help comes from the availability of a 'cheat' option which allows he student to look at the entire text at any time. Similarly, the author's RESTORE programme, a version of cloze, allows the student to buy the first and second letters of each missing word if he gets stuck.

On the personal level, the interpretation of 'meaningfulness' relates to the student's perception of how useful and relevant the work is for his needs, of how interesting and amusing it is and of how well it fits in with the rest of his language programme. It will also relate to his feelings about the course and about how much it treats him as a sentient being, capable of making valid decisions (up to a certain point) over the way his learning should take place (cf. Henner-Stanchina & Riley 1978; Holec 1981). Experience, suggests, incidentally, that students often appreciate simple Drill and Practice, e.g. of inflected forms, perhaps because they perceive their usefulness in helping them master these forms.

THE TEACHER

In any teaching-learning situation, the needs of the teacher are arguably just as important as those of the student. A truly humanistic approach will be both student-centred and teacher-centred. The aspects of teacher-centredness discussed here in relation to CAL are:

- security
- access
- creativity

Security

At introductory sessions on CAL for teachers, one sometimes sees panic set in. A number of people seem frightened of the machines, or of the damage they might do to them if they pressed the wrong button. The whirrings and beepings of some machines only add to the terror. Some teachers feel really threatened by computers, and their apprehensions deserve need to be accepted and dealt with. An additional problem is that some may feel their very job-security threatened by the new electronic marvels. Although most would readily agree that one could not run a worthwhile language course with computers alone (at least not today), it is nevertheless not unreasonable to envisage a slow invasion of the language curriculum by computers, taking over more and more tasks.

How is the teacher to deal with all this? One possible answer might be: 'Get involved!' In addition, one hopes that the rapid spread of home microcomputers will speed up the process of demystifying the medium, and that teachers will come to see computers as another aid, like the blackboard or overhead-projector, but much more versatile.

Access

However, if teachers are to get involved, they need a means of access. Occasional demonstrations and even workshops with 'hands-on' experience are useful, but probably a more effective way of involving teachers is to get them to produce CAL materials themselves, either alone or in working groups.

At the moment, there are three main ways of getting hold of CAL materials. One can buy pre-prepared packages, where everything has been prepared in advance, and all the teacher has to do is push the disk into the machine and switch on. There are authoring languages and authoring systems, which enable a teacher to produce her own programmes and do not require any knowledge of programming. Finally, there are programmes written by teachers who have themselves learned to program in a language like BASIC.

Prepackaged materials are the easiest to work with, but inflexible. They may constitute a useful part of a CAL syllabus, but are unlikely to satisfy all its requirements. Authoring languages and authoring systems are particularly useful, for they offer the teacher the chance to use the computer in the way she thinks is appropriate. In such a way, the teacher can integrate the use of CAL within the total programme and herself remain in control. As for learning to program, this will be only for a minority, but, one suspects, a fairly large one.

Like the student, the teacher will want to feel in control of her situation. It can be argued that efficient CAL will give her control over the linguistic items to be practised, i.e. of words, sentences or texts. For example, the teacher working with a text manipulation programme will want to pick the texts to be available to students and from which they will later make a selection. This is what one can call an 'authoring facility', where the practice type is prerecorded, but the teacher inputs the language to be worked with. In the same way, the teacher can input the vocabulary items for exercises in lexical relationship (opposites, collocations, analogies etc.).

Creativity

The availability of authoring systems makes it possible for the teacher to play a key part in the student's CAL work. Like the student, the teacher has a need for self-expression and creativity, and the task of succesfully integrating CAL practice with classwork is a difficult one, and one which needs expert knowledge such as only the teacher possesses. CAL work is so different to what we have been used to, and offers such interesting opportunities, that considerable inventive and imaginative powers will be needed to exploit it to the full. It is inevitable that the decision to implement CAL systems will often be taken in high places, and imposed on teachers from above, as happened once before, with language laboratories. But it would be a great pity if the expert experience and imaginative powers of the language teaching profession working at the chalkface were not to be creatively involved in developing this new medium. For this is an area of educational innovation which, like others, needs to grow from the ground up.

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THE SILENT WAY

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What is striking in the field of education seen from the beginning of the eighties is the vast array of opinions which pass for the science, or sciences, of education. Whether the problem be the creation of a methodology, or a method, or the assessment of those already in existence, the plethora of opinions is obvious. From the audio-lingual approaches, audio-visual, the translation method, and the direct method, right through to the new, so-called alternative methods or humanistic approaches, not forgetting psycho-dramatic techniques, we are faced with an ever-widening range of ways of undertaking the job of teaching a foreign language.

All the ways of approaching both aspects of the problem, methodology and assessment, presuppose one or more models of man. In the field of methodology for example, Behaviourism gave rise to a range of audio-lingual and audio-visual methods, which moved through several generations as they were "loosened" to suit the needs of the classroom. The explanation Skinner gives for the learning of a first language is unconvincing for all but his most ardent followers. Also the fact that these methods were improved by being taken further and further away from the theory behind them is hardly destined to convince new-comers of its value.

More recently, the Psychoanalytic model has been the basis of such methodologies as Suggestopedia and Community Language Learning, as well as various Psycho-dramatic techniques. The Psychoanalytic model does not suffer from the same handicap as the audio-lingual and -visual methods, but several remarks should be made.

Firstly, this model has little to offer as far as the actual teaching in the classroom is concerned. Indeed classes taught using methods based on this model are characterized by the use of all kinds of teaching techniques and games well-known to any good teacher, with, as well, a specific technique by which each method is easily recognisable. In the case of Community Language Learning, it is the attitude of the teacher who puts himself at the disposition of the students, and who does what they want him to do, once the material has been gathered. In Suggestopedia, on the other hand, the use of music creates a relaxed atmosphere, and speeds up the memorization of the language. The music, however, does not constitute even a quarter of the time spent in the classroom. The rest of the time is devoted to activities commonly found in classrooms round the world.

Secondly, this model is based on the pathology of human beings, and is unable to describe "normal" men, except as those in whom the dose of pathology is remained at a level such that they are able to function in society, (which is also pathological). It seems legitimate to wonder whether such a model is not inherently unsuited to dealing with education. Education requires a model which sees man as normal and healthy, going about the business of living with all his faculties, and facing up to the challenge of life with the knowledge that he will be able to handle what comes his way.

In this context, the Silent Way is in a quite different position. Firstly, it is based on an as-yet little known but very complete model of man which is itself part of a new model of the universe. These models are in keeping with the discoveries of Physics during the Twentieth Century. Secondly, it is an integrated approach, which affects the whole class all the time. It is a completely new way of doing the job, and owes nothing to pre-existing methods.

Thirdly, the Silent Way belongs to a whole family of teaching approaches which cover a wide range of educational fields - Words in Colour for teaching reading to small children, Mathematics with Algebricks for teaching maths to Primary and Secondary students, Animated Geometry, films for the teaching of College level geometry, Absolute Visual Reading for the Deaf, a new Braille for the Blind, etc...

The Silent Way was created in 1954 by Dr Caleb Gattegno. Gattegno, who was a mathematics teacher at the University of London at that time, and as such had come across the Cuisenaire rods for teaching maths to small children, saw to what extent the rods generated language in the classroom, and realised they could be used in the language classroom in order to create unambiguous situations. At about the same time, he was working for UNESCO on the problem of literacy in Ethiopia, and had the idea of attributing a colour to each phoneme. This allowed the speed of learning to read to be increased considerably. The combination of the two ideas led to the Silent Way.

All the approaches created by Gattegno are applications of the same general principle - the subordination of teaching to learning.

It is evident that a student does not learn simply because a teacher teaches. Gattegno was led to examine the double problem of what learning is, and how we learn. For Gattegno, learning is becoming aware. This notion of awareness is fundamental. It is obvious that no one can become aware for someone else. All awarenesses are strictly individual. Learning is not simply a transfer of knowledge from one person to another. The student will perhaps end up with the knowledge but the teacher has not given it to him. Indeed we can learn a lot by examining those learnings which have not involved a teacher. We all learnt to digest, to sit up, to stand, to walk, to talk. Gattegno includes as learning anything I didn't know to do, that I do know how to do now. This definition includes, then, even pre-natal activities such as constructing the soma, this living body we have all given ourselves. One of the properties which each of us displays is self-awareness. For Gattegno awareness is at work from conception on, an awareness which is concomitant with the development of the person involved, at the stage of development he has reached at a particular moment in time. Learning, becoming aware, takes place continuously. In fact, we are learning systems. We do not need to be motivated from the outside in order to engage ourselves in learning. We do this spontaneously, all the time. What we learn changes us so that we move into a new activity different from what we were, through the fact of having engaged ourself in previous activities. Learning is not linear.

"One of the jobs of education is to hook itself up with all these different learning systems and provide each person with what is compatible with the spontaneous involvements of his individual self, while at the same time producing an expansion of the consciousness of that self so that it can live more abundantly. Until recently this job was performed by chance and intuition. We think it can become deliberate and sustained because we are now able to know better what the task entails and how to carry it out." (1973: 8)

What can we know of the persons who make up our classes? We can know:

-- that each has accomplished an enormous amount of learning and has proved by doing so that he is highly competent in the job of learning, in particular, of learning a language.

-- that each has equipped himself with a soma that he knows from the inside, and in which he can reach all that is needed for learning a language. He knows how to control his vocal apparatus with a high degree of precision; he has already installed an efficient feedback system, and he has an advantage over the first time he learnt a language because he knows what language is.

-- that each is an autonomous person (even if he is still dependent on his parents for certain of his needs), who shows himself day by day capable of functioning in many different ways.

-- that each is endowed with certain powers of the mind which will enable him to work in the best way he knows in order to accomplish the task before him.

We can make a brief list of the powers of the mind. Abstraction, for example, is necessary in order to learn to speak, since the child must abstract from all the voices he hears those elements which are linguistically pertinent. Obviously, even the most "concrete" of language is highly abstract.

We all have the ability to make transformations, and this involves the power of the mind. Another is the power of stressing and ignoring - this is a type of abstraction. This is already at work, and visible to the observer, when the baby of eigth or ten weeks becomes aware of the fact that it is he who is producing what he hears, and moves into the game of examining all the things he can do with his vocal apparatus, listening to the variations in pitch, intensity, etc. as well as producing all kinds of sounds by combining tongue and lip movements with movements of his jaw. Anyone who has watched a small baby engage itself in these activities can testify that it is aware of what it is doing, and is engaged in a learning activity.

We all have a will. Our will is present in any activity which requires of us that we remain in contact with the problem, but it is also present in the fact of simply moving. Without the will we could not so much as lift our little finger. Most of the time the presence of the will is very subtle, but anyone who has tried to give up smoking can attest that this power can be very considerable. It is the will which allows us to have truly human behaviour, as it is by means of the will that we can choose to adopt or not a particular behaviour. As humans, we can deliberately decide to modify some aspect of our behaviour, and in fact, effectively modify it, bringing the behaviour to be modified into our awareness and changing it the number of times it takes us to install a new automatism.

We all have a sense of truth. Our sense of truth guides us all and allows us to make judgements on everything we meet as being conform or not to own world of truth. We establish criteria which enable us to make sense out of the world we encounter, which enable us to make choices. Our sense of truth tells us what we must work on to integrate what we encounter. This sense of truth underlies all the other senses we have, the five senses of course, but also our somatic senses, which tell us where we are in relation to our own inner world.

All the persons who make up our classes have these powers, these senses. As teachers, we can not do otherwise than to base what we do in the classroom on these powers rather than on the weakness of our memory. This is what the Silent Way sets out to do.

What, then, is the role of the teacher under such conditions? It is always to subordinate teaching to learning. It is to create unambiguous situations which will allow the students to become aware of the functioning of the language. It is to base what he is doing on a clear vision of the powers of his students, a vision which he has gained through the minute observation of his own inner functionings, and which allows him to be aware of awareness at work in his students as the class takes place around him. It is to allow the student to base what he is doing on his own criteria, his own perceptions, his sense of truth, using his powers to learn in a way which is coherent for himself.

Since each student is doing what he estimates that he should be doing, and the teacher takes the class as so many persons, each having the right to be where he is, it is obvious that no class can ever be considered homogeneous. This is not a problem. In fact it is a definite advantage, because each person brings with him his richness. A class of 30 or 35 is always more vibrant and alive than a class of 15, and the quality of the work done is improved.

The teacher always has in mind the fact that the student gives his time to learning the language and that we all live lives which are an exchange of time for experience. At birth, the only thing we have is time. At death, what we have is experience. Consequently, the notion of economy is essential in Silent Way teaching. Economy of time, but also energy. The teacher can help the student by keeping him on the track, by encouraging him to suspend his judgement when this is necessary. He can try to hinder him from jumping to false conclusions, and help him to become aware of those functionings which slow down his progress.

We can state this very generally by saying that the teacher works on the student, and the student works on the language.

THE PROBLEM OF ASSESSMENT

There are two major levels for this problem:
1. Assessment by the teacher of the work done by the student.
2. Assessment by the scientific community of the Silent Way as a way of doing the job of teaching a foreign language.

The Silent Way teacher has very little need for assessment. When he meets the students for the first time, he takes them where they are, and together, they go where the students want to go. The Silent Way materials are flexible enough to allow him to work with any level whatever, in the here and now.

At the end of the class, he is willing to say that each student did the best he could with what he was at that time and got all that he possibly could out of the course. Each student has the right to be what he is, and where he is on his way through his life. And the Silent Way teacher is educating for life.

The procedure followed in typical classrooms throughout the world throws light on what teachers believe concerning their students, and on their own lack of awareness of what is taking place in the classroom. They give a lesson and then they give exercises designed to make sure that the content of the lesson was in fact passed on. After the homework, which is necessary to make sure, they test. They test again at the end of the year, each time making doubly, triply sure that their students possess the knowledge that they are supposed to. And knowledge is indeed seen as a possession, something I can have today, and no longer have tomorrow. All this needs to be done because the whole process is built on the memory, which is one of the weakest powers of the mind.

In the language class this problem is even more apparent since it is not at all evident that we remember our language. So to stock the new language in the memory is quite absurd. We must work on it through the powers of the mind, and so allow it to be integrated as a functioning. It is not necessary to assess functionings. They can be seen to function.

In the case of scientists wishing to investigate the learning of a language in the Silent Way classroom, the situation is very different. They must find ways of doings so which are compatible with what is actually happening in the classroom. Scientists can measure all kinds of things but they may often have very little to do with what is actually taking place. For the most part, their investigation seems to be restricted to three domains- the memorization of words, exterior phenomena (who says or does what to whom), and the final result.

In the Silent Way classroom, so little emphasis is placed on memorization that it is of no interest to conduct studies of this kind. At the end of a certain time, the students can use the new language with a healthy confidence, but with only a few hundred words. Linguistics shows us the enormous complexity of language. Words do not constitute the difficulties the student meets. He must be at ease with the phonetic qualities of the language, the structure, the algebra of the language. The Silent Way aims at fluency with a little, rather than vast quantities of vocabulary. How does one investigate this?

Exterior phenomena have been investigated because they allow the scientist to be objective. As long as the teacher doesn't have any more idea of what is happening in the classroom than anybody else, he usually does not object to studies of this kind being made. He may even feel that perhaps if we had a better idea of what was happening, we could lift the veil on the mysteries of learning a language, and that studies of this kind may be of some use.

But once the teacher has been trained as an awareness-watcher, he can only object very strongly to these kinds of studies. In his classroom he sees students becoming aware of the sounds of the language, for example, of its structures, using them in accordance with what the language demands. He sees the awarenesses as they take place and works with them on a here and now basis, adapting what he does from moment to moment to what he sees there before him. It is inconceivable to him to imagine that one could want to measure who said what to whom, since it has nothing to do with what is happening at a more subtle level. It is measuring appearances rather than reality.

Is the teacher's way of looking at things scientific? That is not his preoccupation. It makes for highly efficient teaching, and it turns teaching into a highly rewarding profession. He need look no further. He is a teacher.

The scientist on the other hand is faced with the fact that he can test absolutely nothing in this classroom which the teacher would accept as having any relevance unless he develops ways of working which are sensitive to the phenomena being examined. So far this has not been done.

As far as the final result is concerned, it is notoriously difficult to test, and until a great many problems are solved, we cannot say that research in this domain will help us to evaluate the Silent Way.

Perhaps this explains why the Silent Way is not under investigation in Universities throughout the world.

How can the Silent Way be applied on a larger scale? It is a way of teaching which is suited to all types of classes and all age groups. If it provides teachers with answers to their problems, and it does, then it is destined to be used more and more widely as teachers come into contact with it and are able to appreciate it. The subordination of teaching to learning makes considerable demands on whoever decides to do so. They must grow into a new way of being in relationship with themselves and others. I feel confident that this is a challenge ideally suited to our times.

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Language Teaching Approaches: A Shifting Paradigm[1]

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to look at a shifting paradigm for language teaching approaches. This shift is not only occurring in education but in other professions as well. We are moving from the "age of science" to what many call the "age of the person". No longer securely anchored in one frame of reference, the scientific method, we experience conflict, confusion and contradictions. The scientific method, which has strongly influenced us over the last several centuries is based on uninvolved observation, precise measurement and quantification with the goal of prediction and control. The holistic/humanistic approach emerging over the last several decades is based on engaged participation, process and an appreciation of uniqueness which defies absolute prediction and certainty. These two ways of arriving at knowledge are often presented as being mutually exclusive and incompatible with one another. They are not. However, either used inappropriately exacerbates our confusion. The purpose of this paper is to shed some light on this shifting process and to propose some directions for a paradigm which prove more adequate in the age of the person.

THE PARADIGM SHIFT

It is evident in the language teaching profession that we have moved from audiolingual, audiovisual, and cognitive-code approaches to communicative competence, notional-functional, and to whole-person community learning approaches. Beliefs about the psychology of human learning underlying these ways of looking at teaching have shifted accordingly from a habit-reinforcement, cognitive-code and pragmatic theory to a whole-person theory.

This paradigm shift was evidenced not only at the 1983 AIMAV Colloquium but also at others such as the international colloquium held in Cordoba, Spain (1979) entitled "Science and Consciousness." In this gathering of physicists, neuroscientists, psychoanalysts and philosophers, there was general agreement that the mere fact that such a colloquium was being held had historic significance and value. It indicated a recognition of "the current paradigm shift in science and its implications for society." The theme of this shift was the "reconciliation of the 'two parallel paths of human understanding' - rational empirical science and the inner search via intuition and imagination." (Ferguson 1979b)

Highlighting the disproportionate weight that rational empirical science has amidst the ways of knowing, Rollo May announced to his colleagues at the 87th Annual American Psychological Association meeting in New York City (1979) that "the idea of science on which the APA is based is now defunct ... the central error employed by psychologists is reductionism - reducing love to sex, despair to depression, and freedom to decision-making." (in Ferguson 1979a) In short, he saw that human experience was being reduced to a single variable so that it could be measured.

May might have been unknowingly describing a common reductionist tendency on the part of teachers, who, in the words of Robert Blair, "borrow only certain outward features of (an) approach without understanding its real power" and in so doing "use an airplane only as a car or a sophisticated computer only as a typewriter." (Blair 1982: 103-104).

Yet the pendulum is swinging. Statements representing views opposing those such as Rollo May's reveal the confusion inherent in paradigm shifts. Jack Richards, a linguist, calls for greater weight to be given to the empirical way of knowing. In a plenary address given at the 1983 TESOL Convention, he stated:

> *If language teaching is approached from the perspective of curriculum development, a much greater importance accrues to needs analysis, identification of the individual microskills which reading, writing, listening and speaking entail, diagnostic testing, setting objectives, and measurement and evaluation ... what is more important is to be able to demonstrate measurable gains in proficiency that particular techniques or procedures bring about. (Richards 1983)*

Sobering thoughts and findings have come to us from the physicists since the 1920's when Heisenberg, awarded the Nobel Prize for the development of quantum mechanics, discovered the uncertainty principle. Through this he showed that we can no longer accept a so-called "objective" scientific way of thinking that appears to have existence in some abstractive realm unrelated to oneself and others. Recently Fred A. Wolf, also a physicist, has come forward with awarenesses both humbling and hopeful:

> *Quantum mechanics seems to point to the limit of human power. These limits refer to our knowledge and our ability to gain knowledge. The qwiff or quantum wave function is unobservable. Yet we feel that it is an adequate model for determining the probabilities of events. Qwiffs flow in a perfectly orderly fashion. But then an observation takes place. The orderly flow becomes a disorderly pop. A probability becomes an actuality. We humans seem to have some control over our lives and yet we also seem to be powerless victims to another will, another order ...*
> *Perhaps if people saw that there was no way to break the uncertainty principle, wars would stop. Certainly, if people became aware that a power over another human being was impossible because of quantum physics, the world would be a different place for all of us. (Wolf 1981: 248-249)*

So while some may argue that we are merely experiencing a semantic battle, others hold that we are genuinely moving from a dichotomized way of understanding human beings which attempts to guarantee predictability and control to a more holistic way of understanding which has uncertainty built into it. Our failure to consciously recognize the difference between these two "parallel paths of understanding" and to accept both of them as valid ways of knowing will continue to be the "villain" causing the confusion and conflict underlying our discussions.

THE 1983 AIMAV QUESTIONS

The 1983 AIMAV Colloquium proposed to answer two questions regarding the new approaches to foreign language teaching methodology: 1) What is the scientific basis of the theories recently developed? 2) To what extent can the new methods be applied on a larger scale? These questions provide another occasion to wrestle with the ever increasing evidence that learning, growth and change are happening in classrooms around the world whether this evidence is based on empirical studies, common sense, teaching-learning experience, or a general educational philosophy.

We are on the *threshold* of being able to adequately respond to these questions. Why are we only on the threshold? Why can't we arrive at a definitive answer that will let us simply say "A works but B does not; therefore, A must be better and should be used by everyone?" Until we become more securely anchored in a new paradigm, a new way of understanding that will be large enough to accept all kinds of evidence as valid, we will remain outside the door arguing eloquently about the "best method(s)" as if they really existed! In our arguing we will think that we are discussing the same thing. In fact, some are arguing from values inherent in the scientific method while others are arguing from values inherent in the holistic/humanistic approach.

The language teaching profession has an opportunity to do as other professions have done during this last century, namely, break out of the restrictive limits of the scientific method as the only way of arriving at reliable knowledge. In other words, the new paradigm, which is not yet well delineated, will accept both empirical *and* intuitive evidence as valid. Then evidence such as achievement scores indicating normative progress which can be measured will be measured. But evidence such as unique intuitive awarenesses about a learning process which need a different kind of response and respect will receive both.

Curran (1977: 14) shed some light on this dilemma in saying:

> *We have approached this era with a partitive, that is, segmented view of man. We are somehow unable to experience him as a whole person, but somewhat like the blind man examining the elephant, we find what is convincing according to the angle from which we view him. One might say that we went even further. Sometimes, to use Chesterton's phrase, "cutting the heads to fit the hats", we only accepted as valid the "scientific" data about man, no matter what else might be observed, so long as it corresponded to one of the segmented views previously described. As the mathematical model became less and less satisfactory, the S-R Bond conception became correspondingly limited, and a broader conception of learning to satisfy an integrated view of man needed development.*

A THIRD WAY OF KNOWING

In his attempts to work with a more unitary concept of the person, Curran applied counseling awarenesses and skills directly to the learning experience. The outcome of this research has become known popularly as Community (Language) Learning. The techniques commonly associated with CLL are often discussed in the literature as a "method" of language teaching, as if teaching could be reduced to a rigid set of recipes. Enthusiasts describe this "method" in many ways varying from total distortions to limited understandings. Negativists attack it from varying angles. Those who sincerely experience it and work to understand it go beyond method to an awareness and understanding of this third way of knowing which Curran has called aggregate-empathetic learning:

> *Because of our Cartesian way of thinking which is at the base of the scientific method, it is difficult to conceive a knowing process that involves in any particular act the whole person: conscious, unconscious, somatic, instinctive, and emotional as well as cognitive ... Until now, if this was recognized at all, it was referred to as some kind of undefined intuition. But it is, in fact, much more than a vague intuition as it is seen in counseling-therapy and in community learning experiences patterned on counseling ... It seems to be truly a different way of knowing ... For want of a better term, we have called this third way of knowing "aggregate-empathetic knowing." (This) means the subtle feel of a myriad of whole-person impressions which unify themselves around an operational pattern or plan which, in some form, is workable.*
>
> *... To understand the aggregate human experience, however, the affective-cognitive element must be added. It is for this reason that we call it aggregate-empathetic knowing, for this allows us to consider the aggregate experience of the unique person here and now, not only as he lives in particular empirical situations but as he knows in a whole-unit manner and in that way relates to himself and others. (Curran 1977: 73-75)*

So what is the relationship between this third way of knowing and the focus of this paper - the shifting paradigm? Community learning experiences patterned on counseling seemed to reveal this way of knowing. To understand it, a new frame of reference seems necessary. The very existence of the "aggregate experience of the unique learner here and now, not only as she/he lives in particular empirical situations but as she/he knows in a whole-unit manner" requires that a teacher trust in an inner developmental process that is taking place within each learner, even though there may be no external evidence to validate what a learner is saying about his/her unique learning experience. The following comments are an example of this dilemma, i.e. placing value on a self-reported experience as evidence of a new Japanese self coming into being when, in fact, there is little or no external linguistic evidence supporting that fact. These comments are from three consecutive reflection times during a nine-hour intensive Japanese weekend:

> *After three hours: I found this very enlightening, and very enjoyable and even though I don't feel that I know anything at this point, I feel that it is all right that I don't know anything.*

> *After six hours: I have always wanted to speak Japanese and I never could or I've never thought I would be able to do so. I've kind of given up but I'm feeling now that I can study it and that maybe I can learn it. I'm going to try. I've never thought that if I tried I could even do it before.*

> *After nine hours: I think we've learned an awful lot today, at least, I have. Even though I feel it is on the surface, I'm going to be dreaming in Japanese. I may not know what I'm doing but I may be dreaming in Japanese.*

If the only criterion for learning is the visible, external evidence, like remembering so many words or phrases after a specified number of hours of instruction, then the inner changes taking place in the learner which are the foundation of that external growth will be by-passed. The above statements are valid statements about an inner motivational process that will directly affect further learning. It is precisely this feeling of inner capability, achievement and desire to try that furthers self-directed, self-motivated, and internalized learning. So if we continue to argue whether we should accept such "self-report statements" as valid evidence that learning is taking place, we only continue to retard our understanding, whether we are teachers, learners or researchers.

Leo Ward, interpreting Jacques Maritain, whose philosophy of education grew out of Aristotelian and Thomistic thinking, offers a statement that calls for a reconciliation of these seemingly opposing points of view:

> *A chief incubus burdening many Americans in matters of education is that their theory has been pragmatized half to death. Learning has its practical side, and it has its theoretic, contemplative (reflective) side. We must accept and respect both .... Empirical method is good, but to make it exclusive is bad. It amounts to the denial of reason itself, a denial which it can attempt only by using reason ... Animal knowledge may be merely a matter of action and reaction, but man's knowledge is not. Nor is it merely a matter of problem-solving ... Genuine human knowledge begins with insights and intuitions. (In Evans 1963: 203)*

As people of the scientific age, we enter a new age, a vastly complex period in history - the age of the person and the age of computers. We live in these times wearing a pair of glasses whose lenses are no longer "appropriately round". We have developed the habit of understanding in a fragmented/atomistic way rather than a holistic/unified way.

Peter Elbow underlines both this notion of being unable to see differently as well as the notion of trust, which he recommends as the beginning of being able to see differently. He describes the "doubting game" of empirical research:

> *... Few sets of data are all explained by one explanation; few fields are restricted to one gestalt ... We are like rats who have been taught to see rectangles and circles. But what happens when they show us an ellipse? If it is a round, mild ellipse, we see a circle. Ellipses we don't see. Ellipses don't exist for us ... People just go on seeing rectangles and circles till they have the sense to start playing the believing game. (Elbow 1973: 168-169)*

One could understand Elbow to be saying that believing in what one can see as a teacher as well as what learners express about their learning process might give us a different frame of reference through which to see, feel and hear. Such a way of opening all our channels will allow us to recognize "ellipses" and other evidence of things happening in the learning experience which will broaden our understanding and help us be more effective teachers.

CONCLUSION

Returning to what was said at the beginning of this paper, we are caught today in the cross-fire between the underlying value systems of two different approaches to human understanding - the scientific approach and the holistic/humanistic approach. As we engage in discussions about traditional and alternative methodologies, we need to be consciously aware of the underlying assumptions and limitations of their approaches. Otherwise, we will be locked into endless debate filled with confusion, conflict and misunderstanding. As teachers begin to "experiment" with and adapt these new approaches to their particular needs in an attempt to be "eclectic", it would be well to heed the recommendations of others who have already worked with these new approaches in the classroom on a consistent basis. Irene Dutra (1979) comments:

> *One must remember, however, that Curran, Gattegno and Lozanov are each focused on different aspects of learning, and thus, in important respects, operate from different, even contradictory assumptions. Within each man's approach there is a consistent logic that follows from these assumptions, but this logic, piecemeal, does not necessarily carry over from one approach to another. Teachers, by eclectically picking and choosing techniques from different methods, without understanding the assumptions on which they are based, may lose out on the real value of these methods.*

So why are we only on the threshold of being able to adequately respond to the questions posed by the 15th AIMAV Colloquium? We are there because we are still groping for a new research paradigm which is large enough to respond to all kinds of evidence. I have proposed that the notion of "aggregate-empathetic knowing" could shed some light on this quest for a new research paradigm. To propose this is in no way to suggest one best method for language teaching. On the contrary, it is to suggest that the new trends in language learning - the communicative/holistic/humanistic approaches - have much to offer in terms of gaining a clearer understanding of whole - person education.

FOOTNOTE

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EN QUOI LE COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING EST UNE APPROCHE NOUVELLE

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1 INTRODUCTION: LE CLL POUR QUOI?

Le CLL (Community Language Learning) est une approche basée sur une théorie développée par le Docteur Charles A. CURRAN, professeur de psychologie à l'Université de Loyola (Chicago). Le CLL est une application particulière à l'enseignement des langues de ce que C. CURRAN appelle le Counseling-Learning ou l'Apprentissage-Conseil. Il permet d'étudier les relations entre les êtres humains dans leur entité consciente et inconsciente. Des techniques non-directives et d'orientation psychothérapique régissent les rapports entre les élèves et l'enseignant que l'on appelle également "facilitateur", "animateur", "médiateur" ou "régulateur"; cet enseignant est à la fois psychologue-conseiller et linguiste, mais dans un cours CLL il est bon qu'il y ait deux personnes différentes: l'une travaille au niveau de la dynamique de groupe, l'autre étant source d'informations linguistiques. L'approche est basée sur le désir profond de chacun de communiquer avec les autres. L'apprentissage de la langue étrangère, bâti sur l'expression de ce désir, permet "l'apprentissage par l'être dans sa totalité" (Curran 1957, 1976).

En France on cherche à étudier, lors de stages de recyclage pour professeurs de langue, des méthodes nouvelles ou des approches qui permettent une réflexion sur le rôle de l'enseignant, sur ses rapports avec les élèves; ceci afin que les professeurs puissent renouveler leur enseignement, rafraîchir leur présentation et remettre en question certains problèmes. On essaye de trouver des systèmes pédagogiques qui favorisent la communication au sens large et qui permettent de mettre en évidence des interactions positives en salle de classe. Or le CLL paraît tout à fait adéquat à présenter dans un tel cadre, car ce n'est pas une simple méthode qui apporte des solutions pédagogiques, mais une approche qui donne beaucoup de renseignements sur le plan psychologique, une approche sous-tendue par une réflexion approfondie sur l'être humain, une approche relevant de la psychologie humaniste qui accorde à l'apprenant et au groupe d'apprenants l'importance qui lui revient. Les attitudes des personnes en présence sont définies en fonction d'une philosophie de l'apprentissage et le processus pédagogique proposé est le reflet concret de cette systématique. En fait il ne s'agit pas seulement d'une philosphie de l'apprentissage, mais d'une philosophie de l'éducation. Qu'implique donc cette philosophie? Essayons de répondre en passant par les thèmes de réflexion proposés à un stage de recyclage.

2 ELEVE ET AUTONOMIE

2.1 *L'élève en tant que personne à part entière*

En classe l'élève n'est pas seulement un être en train de faire des exercices intellectuels; c'est un être possédant une personnalité particulière, c'est un être ayant un rôle à tenir dans un groupe social constitué. L'apprenant en tant que membre du groupe s'accomplit donc en classe en évoluant en tant que "élement" de ce groupe. Il doit essayer de neutraliser son "ego", aider les autres dans l'apprentissage et compter sur l'apport des autres; il y a collaboration intense. Charles CURRAN pense que ces faits ont une grande importance et doivent absolument être pris en considération dans tout enseignement (Curran 1972, 1978).

2.2 *Investissement total de l'élève dans l'apprentissage*

Il s'agit d'un apprentissage "non-défensif" dans lequel la compétitivité est neutralisée et lors duquel il y a, étape par étape, évaluation psychologique de l'apprentissage et dépassement des tâches proposées. Il y a prise de conscience de plus en plus grande par l'élève de son propre fonctionnement dans le processus d'assimilation et cette prise de conscience favorise la progression.

2.3 *Les étapes de la croissance de l'élève: de la dépendance à l'indépendance et description parallèle des phases du cours*

2.3.1

L'élève au premier stade dépend totalement de l'enseignant sur le plan linguistique. C'est la première phase du cours lors de laquelle l'apprenant énonce dans sa langue maternelle une phrase, (ce qu'il a envie d'exprimer en ce moment précis) qui est traduite par l'enseignant dans la langue cible, le russe en l'occurrence; cette phrase est ensuite répétée par l'élève et l'énoncé, devenu acceptable après plusieurs répétitions, est enregistré sur bande magnétique.

2.3.2

Les élèves écoutent l'enregistrement, reconnaissent leurs phrases et les traduisent dans la langue maternelle. C'est la phase de reconnaissance. Une certaine autonomie se dégage par rapport à l'enseignant.

2.3.3

Séance de feed-back lors de laquelle les élèves analysent leurs réactions à ce premier apprentissage avec l'aide du professeur-régulateur. Les réactions au groupe (agressivité, attrait), à la langue nouvelle (intérêt, difficultés), à l'enseignant (sa manière de corriger, son degré d'intervention) sont discutées.

2.3.4

Les phrases enregistrées sont écrites au tableau en caractères latins ou directement en caractères cyrilliques et ce texte composé par les apprenants est lu plusieurs fois par l'enseignant. Puis les élèves posent les questions qu'ils désirent, qu'elles soient d'ordre scriptural, phonétique ou grammatical. L'enseignant répond aux questions succintement; il ne fait pas de cours; il se contente d'être à la disposition des élèves; il joue le rôle du "dictionnaire vivant" ou d'une "banque de données". Les élèves suivent leur cheminement propre et émettent des hypothèses qui sont confirmées ou infirmées par l'enseignant; il y a "négociation" linguistique et sémantique, il y a recherche par approches successives et ce procédé permet de respecter l'autonomie de l'apprenant, de développer cette autonomie et favorise la mise en évidence des stratégies d'apprentissage et leur étude.

2.3.5
Les élèves lisent les phrases qu'ils veulent prononcer correctement; ils sont corrigés. Comme nous pouvons le constater l'initiative est toujours prise par l'élève au niveau du choix des phrases à travailler.

2.3.6
Les élèves produisent des phrases nouvelles en se basant sur le matériel enregistré et transcrit et proposent leur production au groupe; l'enseignant fait partie de ce groupe. Les diverses productions sont corrigées, discutées, commentées en communauté. Les élèves prennent des notes, recopient les textes. S'il y a, à ce niveau, "désordre" pédagogique, ce n'est qu'un désordre apparent qui est la manifestation d'une première organisation du travail de groupe, une structuration en communauté du processus pédagogique.

En suivant cette progression les élèves deviennent de plus en plus indépendants et s'engagent sur les sentiers de l'autonomie linguistique et psychologique.

Au cours suivant les étapes sont reprises dans le même ordre. Plus tard d'autres procédés pédagogiques apparaitront, les principes de base restant les mêmes.

3 PROFESSEUR ET NON-DIRECTIVITE

Nous constatons que les rapports classiques entre l'enseignant et le groupe d'élèves sont totalement modifiés; l'enseignant n'est plus le détenteur du savoir; il n'intervient que partiellement en essayant de répondre à la demande des personnes du groupe et physiquement il est placé, dès le début du cours, à l'extérieur du cercle formé par le groupe d'apprenants (15 au maximum); l'enseignant ne s'impose pas. Cet *effacement* de l'enseignant permet de réfléchir sur le problème de la non-directivité (Snyders 1975). Ce principe peut être introduit dans une classe sans difficulté majeure, puisqu'il est question de changer une attitude et non pas une méthode d'apport du matériel pédagogique. Dans la mesure où cette attitude est inhabituelle elle peut donner des résultats positifs. De plus cette non-directivité peut être dosée selon le climat de la classe, être introduite très progressivement et donc être pratiquée de manière non-révolutionnaire.

L'*autorité* du maître non-directif n'est pas une présence passive, mais une force positive; pour G. Lozanov, père de la suggestopédie (Lozanov 1971, Saferis 1978), non-directivité ne signifie pas absence d'autorité; l'enseignant essayera de définir son attitude: sera-t-il un *leader* autoritaire, un leader démocratique ou un leader "laisser-faire", ceci par rapport à la classification préconisée par K.Lewin (1967)? L'enseignant sera conscient des rapports socio-affectifs qui sous-tendent la vie du groupe tels que les conçoit J. Moreno (1965). Comme le suggère C. Rogers, l'enseignant devra, pour mettre en evidence les processus relationnels, réaliser des séances de feed-back (Rogers 1966, 1971).

Nous remarquons que l'attitude de l'enseignant, telle qu'elle est présentée dans le CLL, rejoint des attitudes définies par d'autres spécialistes en psychologie. Rester à l'écoute, comprendre l'autre et accepter d'être compris, développer ce que les apprenants ont en eux tout en respectant le principe de l'intervention minimum, voilà des tâches complexes à réaliser pour l'enseignant. Si la personnalité de celui-ci et ses affinités le portent à travailler sur le comportement et sur lui-même, il utilisera avec plaisir l'approche CLL et mettra en pratique ce que C. CURRAN appelle le Counseling-Learning ou l'Apprentissage-Conseil.

4 STRATEGIES D'APPRENTISSAGE ET SARD

C. CURRAN designe les constantes de tout apprentissage par le sigle SARD. Il s'agit de 6 mots, qui résument de manière subtile les stratégies. Ces 6 paramètres devraient, à notre avis, être pris en compte dans tout enseignement, dans tout système éducatif: l'enseignant-médiateur doit tenter par son attitude de créer un climat de SECURITE et faire disparaître l'anxiété de l'élève, son sentiment d'infériorité, afin que ce dernier soit disponible pour une meilleure RETENTION de la langue. Tout élève ressent à un moment donné de l'apprentissage une AGRESSIVITE envers l'enseignant, détenteur du savoir qu'il aimerait posséder, une allergie envers la matière à assimiler; cette agressivité *naturelle* doit être prise en compte par l'enseignant-régulateur, qui peut soit neutraliser, soit laisser se développer, afin que l'élève puisse apprendre en dépassant. En observant un cours nous notons que l'élève construit la langue tel un puzzle; ce procédé crée un climat lors duquel l'ATTENTION de l'apprenant (et de l'enseignant) est sans cesse sollicitée et sa REFLEXION constamment en éveil. Avant que d'intérioriser le système de la langue cible, l'élève doit procéder à une DISCRIMINATION de ce qui s'y passe au niveau de la graphie, de la syntaxe, de la sémantique, de la grammaire et de la phonétique.

Nous constatons que le SARD prend en compte les niveaux linguistique, psychologique et didactique. Dans l'éducation le niveau psychologique ayant tendance à être évacué, il est bon de lui redonner vie.

Dans le domaine de la méthodologie et de la formation des formateurs les thèmes étudiés actuellement en France sont l'autonomie, la non-directivité, les stratégies d'apprentissage et d'enseignement. Le CLL contenant ces trois facteurs en permet l'étude et le développement.

5 CONCLUSION: LE CLL POUR QUI?

Bien que le CLL soit une approche conçue au départ pour les adultes, elle nous paraît utilisable dans les classes du secondaire et semble applicable tout ou partie à des enfants.

Les séances de feed-back peuvent être réduites et moins fréquentes si le groupe d'élèves ne s'y prête pas facilement. L'enseignant, lui, même si les élèves n'en ont pas conscience, aura toujours présent à l'esprit les six paramètres du SARD, ceci en ce qui concerne le niveau psychologique.

Au niveau des conditions matérielles, l'approche CLL paraît relativement simple à introduire: il est possible d'obtenir un magnétophone à cassettes, il est aisé de disposer des chaises en rond en y installant 15 élèves, les autres élèves restant observateurs mais participant aux phases 4), 5), 6) du cours, après avoir écouté et regardé les phases 1), 2) et 3). A la séance suivante les élèves-observateurs deviendront les participants actifs.

Les mini-dialogues produits par les élèves sont motivants à étudier sur le plan linguistique, car ils sont une manifestation des réactions et des besoins du moment. Les thèmes qui se dégagent des textes étudiés sont:
a) Connaissance de la situation extérieure ("Je suis en retard, parce qu'il y a trop de circulation")
b) Connaissance des autres membres du groupe ("Quel est votre nom?" "Quelle est votre profession?")
c) Attitude par rapport à la situation présente ("Le russe est difficile", "Je ne peux pas prononcer")
L'étude des textes de manuels est nécessaire mais l'introduction du "texte vivant" comme objet de travail scolaire constitue un incentif puissant.

Nous parlons de l'approche CLL en France comme d'une approche nouvelle. Elle l'est effectivement pour les raisons que nous avons citées plus haut, mais n'oublions pas que C. Freinet, dès 1920, voulait déjà dans son enseignement concilier la théorie et la pratique, la personne et le groupe, l'école et la vie (Freinet 1975). En fait le CLL permet une présentation nouvelle, dans le domaine de la méthodologie, d'un point de vue et d'une attitude qui ne sont pas nouveaux, mais qui, de nos jours, constituent un pôle d'attraction en matière de pédagogie des langues (Grosjean 1979). Dans la mesure où le CLL ne répond pas seulement à la question "Quoi faire?", mais surtout à la question "Comment faire?" nous parlerons non pas de nouveauté mais de renouveau.

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A CRITICAL REVIEW OF AMERICAN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDIES USING SUGGESTOPEDIA

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ABSTRACT

The article starts by reviewing briefly the requirements of scientific research such that one can draw legitimate cause and effect conclusions from experimental studies. All the known U.S. studies are reviewed that investigated foreign language training with suggestopedic or suggestopedic-like techniques. A number of studies are also cited that did not meet the strict requirements of cause and effect laboratory studies. The American studies that have utilized tight experimental designs have rather consistently shown that suggestopedia, or its American derivative SALT, produces a two or three times greater foreign language achievement than students taught conventionally.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reviews the scant literature in the United States of studies wherein foreign languages have been taught with an accelerative learning method called suggestopedia in Europe or SALT (System of Accelerative Learning Techniques) in the United States. But before we can review the scant studies, we must review the logic of the scientific method used in research to determine causality.

Scientific studies and the logic used to infer causality can be conveniently analysed or categorized into three types. The first type of experimental study is what one could call the "case history" type of study. The classical example of this is Sigmund Freud, who developed his well known psychodynamic theories of human motivation and psychoanalysis based upon various extensive and in-depth studies of a few neurotic patients in Vienna around the turn of the century. Many independent variables were analysed according to the skill of the analyst, and relationships leading to putative relationships on the criterion-dependent variables were explored. In the case of psychoanalysis many variables that possibly could have affected the sex drive or the death wish were explored and Freud developed his classical scheme of defense mechanisms on this basis. According to our subsequent definition of proof, the best that we can say is that the logic of a case history study permits speculation on a cause and effect relationship between variables, but no more.

A second general type of study is one wherein many data are collected on many individuals, and the results are then analysed with a correlational or multiple regressional approach. The experimenter analyses the relationships between the independent variables or predictor variables, and uses them to predict some criteria or dependent variables. The result is the multiple regression predictor equation where one or more independent variables are used to predict the major criterion of interest, or occasionally two or three criteria of interest. A typical example here is the investigator wishing to predict how well students are going to perform academically upon arrival in college; s/he will use a number of demographical and academic variables from high school, as well as entrance test scores from college, in an effort to predict college academic grade point average (GPA). Such efforts are typically quite successful, and variables such as high school class rank and entrance aptitude test scores typically are among the best predictors of college GPA. The investigator also usually will attempt to replicate or repeat these findings by applying his/her resulting prediction equation to a second sample and again with considerable success. Typically, the best single predictor of college GPA is high school rank or high school GPA. When combined with entrance test scores, however, the prediction is quantitatively better. This type of research study can be characterized as a correlational approach or multiple regression approach. The logic involved here is that high school success along with a corresponding entrance test score can predict college academic performance quite highly for groups of students. The resulting dictum is that "immediate past performance predicts future performance in the same area quite well."

Examining the logic of this, however, we see that at best the logic is probabilistic and not causal; that is, we can say that high school academic performance predicts college academic performance but we cannot say that high school academic performance directly causes college academic performance, because of several other possible influential variables such as motivation for a particular curriculum, variables of size and cultural influence in high school, and whether or not the student was engaged in part time work to support himself/herself. The best that we can say about a correlational study is that we are probably correct when we attribute high school academic success as the (a) cause of college success but we cannot be completely confident in this regard.

This leads us to the third and last type of study wherein we can reason from effect back to cause. In this type of study called an experimental or manipulative study under controlled conditions, an investigator deliberately manipulates some likely independent variables or causative variable. The investigator develops two or more levels of his putative independent variables and then randomly assigns students for treatment to these particular independent variable levels. The key element here is that the students are assigned at random to these different treatment levels so that the effects of all other possible influential independent variables will be minimized and theoretically eliminated. To insure against the possibility of significant results having happened by chance, the investigator usually repeats or replicates his/her experimental procedures by taking a second group of subjects and randomly assigning them in the second study to the same levels of independent variables as the first time. Thus the investigator has experimental and statistical control over chance happening by repeating or replicating his/her experiment. When the experimenter finds significant treatment effects with this type of research design, he or she is confident that the effects obtained in the criterion variables can be attributed causally to the influence of the independent variables which were manipulated at several levels. Because of random assignment of subjects to different treatment effects before criterion measurement, and because of obtaining the same results a second time (replication), the experimenter is quite confident that s/he has shown a cause and effect relationship between the manipulated independent variables and the criteria variables.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the following review of studies of foreign languages taught with suggestopedia or its American synthesis, System of Accelerative Learning Techniques (SALT), only studies that meet the criterion of causality, that is the laboratory manipulative type of design, will be included. Occasionally, studies that come close to this will be included because of their relevance; caveats will be noted accordingly.

The first study reviewed is by Marina Kurkov (1977). She was the first one in the United States to attempt to evaluate the suggestopedic teaching method. She adapted suggestopedia to the teaching of beginning Russian at Cleveland State University in the Fall of 1971. The experimental section of Beginning Russian consisted of 14 students, with 19 comparable students in the control section. In the experimental group 43% had had some previous training in Russian, while in the control group the corresponding percentage was 29%. This difference was not significant, nor did a pretest of 60 items administered to both groups show a significant difference between the groups initially. The experimenter had made an arbitrary decision before knowing anything about enrollment in classes as to which section would be experimental and which would be the control group. Thus this study met the requirement of random assignment of students to experimental treatment to control the influence of other possible variables on learning Russian. The experimental class covered 2 quarters worth of material in one quarter whereas the control was taught conventionally and covered one quarter's worth of material using the same textbook for beginning Russian. Kurkov used a standard test for evaluating Russian, the MLA Cooperative Foreign Language test, as well as end of course test, to evaluate effectiveness of teaching Russian.

For evaluation, the control group averaged a course grade of 2.5 (C) and the experimental group 3.0 (B). At the end of the quarter, the experimental students who had had Russian taught suggestopedically were at no advantage. Kurkov reported that the results were favorable and that the experimental students accomplished 20 weeks of work in 10 weeks of work without penalty. Later the experimental group students assimilated well into a group which had had their first Russian courses conventially. The early spurt of learning Russian during suggetopedic training was followed by nearly standard development. In summary, data from this particular course led one to reason from cause and effect: with suggestopedia the Russian students had learned twice as much Russian as had the students taught conventionally.

The second study reviewed is a short term laboratory controlled study by Bordon and Schuster (1976) done within the setting of a Spanish course taught suggestopedically. The independent variables manipulated were: suggested positive atmosphere, background music, and word presentation synchronized with the breathing of the students and the background music. Students or subjects were 32 college students without previous formal training in Spanish ranging in age from 19 or 26; half were male, half were female. The experimental design utilized a full factorial analysis of variance statistical design. The independent variables were dichotomous, that is, a suggestive positive atmosphere was either present or absent, background music was either present or absent, and the instructor-experimenter either synchronized Spanish word presentation with the students' breathing and background music or did not. Two male and two female subjects were assigned at random to each of the 8 possible treatment cells. All three independent variables significantly affected the acquisition and retention of Spanish words. A significant cumulative interaction effect also occurred in accordance with the predictions of suggestopedia. At a practical level when all three of these independent variables were present, learning was 2 1/2 times better than when all three variables were absent. The criterion was the number of words that the students had learned out of a list of 50 Spanish words presented to them experimentally under one of the eight conditions. When all three variables were absent, students learned 8.3 words from the list of 50, whereas when all three variables were present, students learned an average of 30.5 words. The data for the main effects and two-way interactions showed intermediate effects as expected.

This experimental study done on a short term in the context of a Spanish class taught suggestopedically (or SALT actually) showed the influence of three of the important suggestopedic variables. Reasoning here can procede effectively back to cause, that is, the three variables of suggestive-positive atmosphere or climate, baroque background music, and word presentation synchronized with students' breathing and background music produced significantly better learning and retention 6 weeks later of Spanish vocabulary than when these variables were absent.

The next study reviewed was conducted by Schuster (1976) in a preliminary evaluation of the suggestive accelerative Lozanov method for teaching beginning Spanish at the college level. In the fall of 1972, the author taught one section of beginning Spanish with SALT or suggestopedia. One section of the 12 or 13 sections of beginning Spanish was selected at random to fit the author's time schedule. Two other sections of Spanish taught by other instructors using the same textbook but utilizing a conventional method served as controls. Students in the experimental section were in Spanish class for a single 2 hour class per week in contrast to the six contact hours of students taught conventionally. The instructors of the comparison sections made up the final exams for all students and the experimenter had nothing to do with making up these criterion tests. At the end of the course there were insignificant differences in achievement on the common lecture and laboratory exams between the experimental and control sections. In addition students in the experimental section spent less time on homework on Spanish then did the conventional students. Thus the experimental method resulted in a time saving of approximately 3 to 1 in teaching beginning Spanish. Test result data are given in Table 1.

The next research study that utilized a controlled laboratory design for teaching foreign language is that of R.W. Bushman (1976a). Three instructional treatments were administered to 41 undergraduate students studying Finnish; a full suggestopedic treatment, a modified suggestopedic where music and easy chairs were deleted and a conventional classroom instructional treatment. Two teachers were involved, both of whom taught one class of each treatment after preliminary instruction with separate students. Students were then measured on vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation and communication. Group means were adjusted only by the Pimsleur language aptitude test battery score, as language background and suggestability scores were found not to be significant predictors.

The suggestopedic groups performed generally better than the control group and far better on the communication measure, but the two suggestopedic groups did not vary significantly from each other. Due to random assignment of subjects to experimental treatment conditions, the author concluded that suggestopedia did cause better Finnish language learning.

In a second study Bushman (1976b) evaluated Russian language learning with a suggestopedically taught group and a control group taught conventionally. It is doubtful whether this second study was a true test of suggestopedia since the major component of suggestopedia used was finger painting as an artistic means to enhance learning. This reviewer questions whether finger painting which has no content relevance to Russian could have contributed and therefore feels that Bushman's second study was not a true test of suggestopedia, and that his conclusion of the invalidity of suggestopedia in teaching Russian is invalid.

Robinett (1975) tested and evaluated an adaptation of suggestopedia to teaching second semester Spanish for 6 weeks to college students randomly assigned to one of three treatments. The first experimental group had 2 of their 5 weekly classes taught suggestopedically and the second group had 4 of 5 so taught. The control group had the traditional class and laboratory combination with 5 classes weekly. All labs and classes were 50 minutes each. After the introduction, background and explanation, the suggestopedic treatment consisted of deep breathing, review, dynamic presentation of new material, and its subsequent review with relaxing music. In the data analyses, there were no significant differences in previous academic achievement or first semester Spanish grades among the three treatments. Both experimental classes had significantly higher exam scores than the control group, but there was no difference between the experimental groups.

Ramirez (1982) in a controlled classroom study evaluated the effect of suggestopedia in teaching English vocabulary to Spanish dominant Chicano third grade children. As expected, children taught vocabulary with suggestopedia learned significantly more words (19.78) than did the children taught conventionally in the control group (12.79). However, the children taught with suggestopedia minus imagery also learned significantly more words than control (22.83) but there was no difference between these two experimental groups. A possible explanation for the lack of significant difference between the two experimental groups was that key word imagery may have taken some time to be learned as a strategy by the children and they may not have had sufficient time. Thus, again in this study there is a cause and effect relationship between suggestopedia and superior vocabulary learning.

Wagner & Tillney (1983) investigated the applicability of techniques adapted from suggestopedia as described by Ostrander & Schroeder in the book *Superlearning* (1979). The authors used relaxation tapes produced by Superlearning, Inc. and an electroencephalograph (EEG) to measure brainwave activity while 21 students were taught a 300 word German vocabulary over a five week period. They used three experimental groups, a group with baroque music, a group without baroque music, and a no contact control group who learned the same vocabulary by a traditional method in a classroom setting. These authors reported that students taught in the traditional classroom learned significantly more German vocabulary than those taught by the Superlearning tape and techniques. They also reported that left hemisphere monitoring of the brainwaves showed no significant change in brainwave rhythms in the experimental groups. The authors claim to have been scrupulous to preserve superlearning methodology in their investigation, but were unable to substantiate its claims.

This reviewer would like to make some critical comments about the Wagner & Tillney (1983) study. First, the authors concluded quite correctly that the superlearning tapes for learning German vocabulary are a test of the implementation of superlearning and not a test of suggestopedia per se. The authors had three treatment groups: one group of students randomly assigned to the superlearning tape where they learned German vocabulary with just an artificially varying voice intonation and baroque music in the background. Another no-contact group heard the same tape but without the background baroque music. The contact control group, however, had the same vocabulary words presented in a traditional classroom setting. The results were that the students in a typical classroom setting learned appreciably more German vocabulary words (28.7) than did the superlearning experimental group (13.8 words average) or the superlearning tape without baroque music (12.7). In this reviewer's opinion, this is not a fair way to test the benefits of vocabulary learning tapes that are meant to be used in isolation rather than in a typical classroom. Lozanov (1978), himself, makes the point that the teacher is a critical factor, and this particular research design thus confounded completely a major variable, teacher's presence or absence, with that of language tapes designed to be used by students in isolation away from classrooms. A better no-contact control group would have had the same vocabulary words on yet a third tape, but without any variation in intonation or without any music whatsoever.

This reviewer, himself, has data to show that occasionally in some studies the intonational swing and music may not always contribute as expected suggestopedically. For instance, Schuster & Miller (1979) reported that an active dramatic presentation including voice intonation variation interacted with passive review with baroque music to the extent that these variables did not accumulate as theoretically expected towards enhancing students' learning of English words. Finally it should be noted that Wagner & Tillney did not report any reduction of beta brainwaves in favor of significantly increased alpha brainwaves (relaxation toward sleep) as theoretically indicated by Lozanov (1978). Thus, without this indication of mental relaxation, students listening to the superlearning tapes provided no neurological data that Lozanov's methods were in use. In summary, this study provides an example of how research methodology can be applied to compare apples and oranges with the obvious conclusion that apples and oranges are different. Nevertheless, the Wagner & Tillney (1983) study does have value in the sense that commercial advertising claims and materials do need to be evaluated empirically against relevant conventional methods of teaching.

Studies that report favourable results for suggestopedia do not necessarily prove the validity of suggestopedic claims in enhancing foreign language learning. Two examples wil be given. Philipov (1978) utilized suggestopedic techniques in the teaching of Bulgarian to six female students for her doctoral dissertation research and compared their learning with ten male students learning Russian. The Bulgarian course suggestopedically took 120 hours in comparison to 330 hours for the conventional Russian course. Two expert judges independently rated the final speaking proficiency of all Bulgarian and Russian students. The median proficiency of Bulgarian students was very high with practically complete comprehension of everything whereas the median proficiency of the Russian students indicated about 50% comprehension and many mistakes. Thus the experimental students learned more Bulgarian than the control students had learned Russian in about 1/3 of the time. Now the basic error of this study was the comparison of apples and oranges. It is true that Bulgarian and Russian are highly similar languages, but nevertheless, all this study did was to show that suggestopedic techniques probably were responsible for a similar Slavic proficiency in 1/3 of the time taken by students taught conventionally; there was no cause and effect relationship shown here.

Prichard *et al.* (1980) adapted suggestopedia successfully to teaching German instruction in high school. Students taught with SALT or suggestopedia learned significantly more German as shown by their higher achievement scores on a standard German achievement test than the controls taught conventionally. While this study shows support of SALT or suggestopedia, it can be faulted because students were not randomly assigned to class treatment and they knew which instructor they were going to have ahead of time. So again the logic of this study, while it supports suggestopedia in this case, can be faulted because cause and effect cannot be shown, only that it is probable that the class taught suggestopedically learned more because of the suggestopedic techniques.

CONCLUSIONS

What can we conclude as to the benefits of suggestopedia or SALT in teaching foreign languages in the United States? First, it is necessary to limit results only to those studies where in this reviewer's opinion the investigators had used a well-controlled research design with random assignment of students to treatment so that cause and effect could be determined. In this reviewer's opinion, the following studies cited have met this criterion: Kurkov (1977), Bordon & Schuster (1976), Schuster (1976), Bushman (1976a), Robinett (1975), and Ramirez (1982). The remaining studies can be faulted for one reason or another, and consequently their conclusions are ignored at this point as possibly invalid. Secondly, all these studies taken collectively consistently show that when the investigator had followed the intent, theory and practice of Lozanov's suggestopedia, students can be taught a foreign language with approximately two to three times greater speed than controls for a similar amount of language acquisition and achievement.

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Table 1. Means and standard deviations (S.D.) of exam scores for regular Spanish students (n=32) and experimental Spanish students (n=19)

Exam & Section	*Average*	*S.D.*	*t*
Written final			
Regular sections	75.41	18.92	1.96*
Experimental section	64.21	19.54	
Spoken lab final			
Regular sections	7.63	1.83	0.33*
Experimental section	7.79	1.36	

*: Insignificant difference, $p > .05$.

FEELINGS REVIVAL

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INTRODUCTION

The teaching/learning process has in the past been almost exclusively based on intellectual procedures and tended to treat man as a white rat (behaviourism) or a cybernetic tortoise (cognitive psychology) like the one invented by Grey Walter (1953).

Of course, man is endowed with reason. But not only with reason. Man is endowed with intellect. But not only with intellect. The terms "feeling", "emotion", "motivation" are much nearer the human being than "behaviourism", "cognitive", "intellect".

Man's behaviour is neither like that of a white rat nor that of a cybernetic organism. The use of the word "cognitive" seems to us an instance of metonym - the use of a part for the whole, since cognition is one for the operations of the intellect (Guilford 1956), which together with memory, convergent production, divergent production and evaluation compose the group of cognitive processes, although cognition can also be a generic term used to designate all processes in knowing, as explained by Warren (1934).

After all, the behaviourist-cognitive approach is called the "I.Q. Psychology", which claims that 80% of the variability in I.Q. among individuals in Western societies is attributable to genetic factors; intelligence is a relatively fixed attribute which sets an upper limit to individual intellectual functioning. This approach is in accordance with the interests of the "culture of failure", that is, poverty makes a child feel he belongs to a culture of inferior beings, a feeling which will tend to limit his self-imposed educational goals. This is a very limited view of man's possibilities or perhaps even a very well-devised marketing strategy to maintain the social *status quo*.

As Carl Sagan (1977) reports, Paul MacLean, chief of the Laboratory of Brain Evolution and Behaviour of the National Institute of Mental Health, in the USA, developed a structural model to explain the evolution of the brain. It is the triune brain model: *the reptilian* or *R-complex*, which probably evolved several hundred million years ago; *the limbic system*, which probably evolved more than one hundred and fifty million years ago, and *the neocortex*, which probably evolved tens of millions of years ago.

According to MacLean, the reptilian brain plays an important role in agressive behaviour, territoriality, rituals and the establishing of social hierarchies.

The limbic system (the pituitary gland (hypophysis), the amygdala, and hypothalamus) appears to generate strong or particularly vivid emotions and dominates the endocrine system which is the same in present-day man as it was in primitive man (as stated in Aldous Huxley 1961).

The neocortex is the seat of many operations which characterize man as rational. It represents 85% of the whole brain, which, in terms of volume, demonstrates its evolution in comparison to the R-complex or the limbic system, but this does not mean that it is more important than the other two levels of brain evolution.

It is in the neocortex that the logical functions are located: reason (from Latin *ratio*, proportion), that is, the faculty which enables man to combine concepts and propositions, to formulate *a priori* principles, explain or logically justify a belief or an act of motivation, which no doubt can be produced by an emotional factor. We have to repeat: man is endowed with intellect. But not only with intellect. And here is the greatest secret of man's intelligence and creativity, if we may say so, which consists in knowing how to direct the limbic system to mobilize reserves of human potentialities not normally used. We know that, in all likelihood, man uses only 4% of his cerebral reserves (V.M. Banchthikov, during the 5th Congress of Neuropathology and Psychiatry in Moscow, 1969).

We can mobilize those reserves through the limbic system which will use the intellectual operations as one of its tools. What is the use of being rational if rationality is used to justify the "culture of failure", generating psychologically created inequalities? A person's performance is much more related to the limbic system (emotional/ motivational) than directly to the intellectual functions. Intellectualism in learning has been a mistake for centuries.

And here we can see the reason why I have been defending the idea of a Humanistic Pedagogy with all its necessary practices, in order to mobilize types of learning/teaching other than those under the merely intellectual approach, such as emotional learning, subceptive (subliminal) learning, kinesthetic learning, ritualistic learning and systemic learning. There are as many types of communication as there are types of information. Consequently, there are as many types of learning as there are types of communication. Charles Darwin (1896) studied this subject and made a great contribution to other studies, such as *The Communication of Emotional Meaning*, by Joel R. Davitz and others.

I propose the expression *humanistic pedagogy* following the model of, however strange it may seem, *humanistic psychology*. Strange because instead of being a recent school of psychology (Abraham Maslow, main founder, Carl Rogers and others), it should be the oldest. Just as this school of psychology criticizes research that seems trivial, ahuman, and even dehumanizing because of a preoccupation with statistics, elegant mathematically measurable experimentation, white rats, computers and other side-issues of human psychology proper, Humanistic Pedagogy makes the same criticism concerning learning/teaching.

DISCUSSION

The subject matter of our talk is

EMOTIONAL LEARNING

We will deal here with feelings (affective experience) and emotions that have motivating effects upon our behaviour.

We are not interested in the study of emotional communication in itself since signals are already results of what we have in our minds. What we have in our minds will use the body and other communicative resources to express itself.

We can sum up the definitions of feeling and emotion considering them to be those experiences which excite us to be moved to activity of some sort, paraphrasing McDougall (*The energies of Man*, 1933, quoted in Arnold 1960).

The word "emotion", which indicates a mental state that moves to action from the inside, has the same root as motive, motivation. Edward J. Murray (1964) says: "The area of emotion is complicated by the lack of general agreement on a basic definition of the nature of the concept. For example, some people take the position that an emotion is an entirely different process from motivation. Others say that emotions are simply one class of motives".

Emotion is such an important mental state that we can establish two laws of accelerative learning from it. First, the "law of auxiliary emotion" and the second, the "law of dominant emotional effect".

I have found this law of auxiliary emotion in the book *Suggestion et Autosuggestion* by Charles Baudouin. In the original it runs like this: "Lorsque pour une raison ou pour une autre, une forte émotion enveloppe l'idée, la réalisation suggestive de cette idée a le plus de chances de succès" (page 107). The essence of the law is: the more an emotion envelops an idea, the more this idea has the opportunity to become reality. The idea of a feeling is already the feeling. The idea of success is already success and the idea of failure is already failure. These laws of emotion are one chapter of nonverbal communication, or communication through emotions. The second law: "the law of dominant effect" runs: "the idea attached to a stronger emotion supersedes the idea attached to an emotion of less intensity". The effects of this law can be compared to those of psychotherapy in learning/teaching, since we reinforce positive emotions.

It is known that the manifestation of intense emotions permits catharsis (Greek word meaning "purification", "purgation") of undesirable emotions through vicarious experience. The vicarious experience is possible because the brain never knows when an experience is real or simply vividly imagined. In Freudian theory the word "catharsis" has a specific meaning. At first, Freud used Joseph Breuer's "cathartic method", which consisted in encouraging the patient to speak about the first occasion on which a symptom appeared; whereupon, Breuer claimed, the symptom disappeared. The objective of speaking about the first occasion on which a symptom appeared seems to us to be to evoke emotional learning. Freud adopted Breuer's method when he still believed that the neurotic states originated in traumatic episodes. Later, however, he changed his view to allow for neurotic states that were the result of conflict, and he developed the technique of free association of which the cathartic method was seen to be one aspect. In free associations, we see emotion association. Sentiments evoked by ideas are the causes of associations and not the ideas themselves. (Ribot 1896)

In Freud's psychology the mind contains charged elements each of which has two aspects, the ideational and the emotional; and the charged elements are in movement towards consciousness to discharge themselves. During treatment the patient is continually struggling to prevent the emergence of repressed emotion. When he does release it into consciousness, the element is thereby discharged. It is the whole process that is known as catharsis. The "feelings revival" method is a substitution for catharsis, since it reinforces positive emotions to supersede the negative ones.

We all know that traditional teaching is full of signals of the first and second systems which arouse negative emotions. (First and second systems of signals belong to Pavlov's classification of signals, *Oeuvres Choisies*)

In school, we have all been subjected to threats that provoke anxiety such as doubt thrown on our intelligence and honesty, attacks on our values, a shaking of our faiths, an undermining of our belief in ourselves as worthwhile human beings. People are threatened by different things, but for each of us there are some threats that arouse anxiety.

The first thing we do in this method is to avoid anxiety by reinforcing positive feelings and emotions by using special proceedings. One of which is the "Positive Emotion Chart" (see model at the end). Each student is stimulated to tell the other members of his group one emotion he chose after making a retrospective analysis of his positive emotional life, in five year periods. Teachers receive special training on emotion sensitivity, thinking and expressing by emotionalized images, expressing of emotions through recitation devoid of meaning, in order to be able to use the feelings revival method.

According to the law of the dominant emotional effect the idea that bears the stronger emotion supersedes the idea with another emotion. Thus, we select a set of positive emotions, since the first class will gradually supplant negative emotions without any process of psychoanalysis, which might tend to reinforce negative emotions if not made by a good specialist.

Drama has a social function of emotional learning. Old actors tried to look taller by wearing certain shoes and put a mask on their faces to accentuate their expression and make their voice stronger. The mask was called *persona,* possibly from the Latin verb *personare,* to sound through. From *persona* we have "person" which means the human being with full emotional resources to perform the functions of his vital necessities (Carl Rogers 1961).

The religious chiefs of certain tribes sometimes use masks, sometimes paint their face to accentuate their expression in order to facilitate transmission, or better, communication of emotions. Here we have not only emotional but also ritualistic learning.

Through the centuries various didactic forms have been used to accentuate emotions, such as the parable and fairy tales.

THE PARABLE

One of the most efficacious means of teaching is the parable (nowadays "the case method"). We have to remind ourselves that the parable was the teaching resource used by Jesus Christ to divulge His doctrine.

Why is the parable such an efficient didactic tool? Initially because it makes learning significant (it is significant only if it is emotional) in giving a meaningful vision of the whole, in attaching the known to the unknown (new knowledge) by means of comparisons and analogies (resemblances in relations), in translating the more complex into the code used by the listeners, in emotionalizing with stories, in leading the listener to think and, also, in using subceptive resources. Jesus, too, was once asked why He used parable: "And the disciples came, and said unto him, Why speakst thou unto them in parables? He answered and said unto them, Because it is given unto you to know the mysteries of the kingdom of heaven, but to them it is not given. For whosoever hath, to him shall be given, and he shall have more abundance: but whosoever hath not, from him shall be taken away even that he hath. Therefore speak I to them in parables: because they seeing see not; and hearing they hear not, neither do they understand." (Matthew, XIII, 10, 11, 12 and 13).

"They seeing see not; and hearing they hear not, neither do they understand" we can interpret as "perceiving with the third eye, with the third ear", which means to be empathic, intuitive and emotionally sensitive. "Understanding" is a typical neocortex activity.

FAIRY TALES

In a phase of their development where children have not yet developed their merely intellectual faculties fairy tales have a real didactic value, since they appeal to emotions.

It is interesting to note that there is a scientific wisdom when people, using ordinary language, say, for instance, "This has marked me for the rest of my life" or when they use the verb "impress" in the sense of producing a vivid perception or image of something, because the limbic endocrine system (pituitary, amygdala and hypothalamus) provides small hormonal proteins which affect other areas of the brain *leaving their marks on it*.

PUBLICITY

Nobody can deny the success of publicity in making us change our behaviour and the persons involved in this field know very well the importance of emotions to influence people and we can easily see that publicity messages aim at our emotions and very rarely at our intellect.

CONCLUSION

We can say that intellect, intelligence, is not the main factor of mental life. The subconscious elaborates and the results of these elaborations come out in the form of intelligence. Considering that the limbic system is to the neocortex in neurophysiology as it is to the ego in psychoanalysis, we conclude that the key to intelligence is the limbic system and not the neocortex, the seat of intellectual operations.

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CLC SYSTEM OF ACCELERATIVE LEARNING

POSITIVE EMOTIONS CHART

- Success brings success -

by Luiz J. Machado de Andrade
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Now recall situations in which you felt strong positive emotions during your lifetime. Moments when you vibrated with all the fibers of yourself. Occasions when you felt a strong mobilization of energy. They may have been moments in which you overcame a difficulty, you achieved a good result in doing something, you got a reward for having done something, a compliment, you did well in some task which had been assigned to you, however simple it may be. It may have been, for example, an occasion when you got a good grade in a test, you passed an exam, a teacher paid you a compliment. In short, an occasion when you were the WINNER, even though other people did not believe you would be able to win.

To help you recall such emotions, divide your life into periods of five years each.

On the other side of this page you will find a chart to help in such a task. USE IT! Divide your life into five-year periods: 1 to 5, 5 to 10, 10 to 15, 15 to 20, 20 to 25, 25 to 30, 30 to 35, 35 to 40, 40 to 45, 45 to 50, 50 to 55, 55 to 60, 60 to 65, 65 to 70, 70 to 75, 75 to 80, ... Obviously, you will use the part of the chart of your past lifetime which you recall, up to the present time.

Having divided your life into five-year periods, try to identify a fact, an event, an occasion when you were successful. Proceed like this from the first experience you are able to recall up to now. Identify each fact, each event, each occasion when you felt positive emotions by writing down one or two words that sum up the emotions you felt in the corresponding vertical column.

After you have filled up the chart, recall the emotions, the good feelings, the intense pleasure you had on such occasions. Take your time and strongly recall such emotions. Relax your muscles and let these emotions come over you once again. Do the same with every event you have written down and choose one to tell the members of the group about-Whenever you have to face a new situation which may either make you panicky, inhibited or, afraid of a failure, revive the positive emotions of a preceding similar situation and let success come again.

THIS PROCEDURE IS MUCH STRONGER THAN YOUR WILL POWER.

1 to 5	5 to 10	10 to 15	15 to 20	20 to 25	25 to 30	30 to 35	35 to 40	40 to 45	45 to 50	50 to 55	55 to 60	60 to 65	65 to 70	70 to 75	75 to 80

THE EXPLORATIVE-CREATIVE WAY

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> "Lorsque les maitres cesseront d'enseigner,
> les élèves pourront enfin apprendre."

INTRODUCTION

For more than two decades now, new approaches in foreign language methodology have been generated separately in different places all over the world. For a comparative review of these orientations, called humanistic or non-conventional, I refer to Bleyhl in this volume, and to Madsen (1979), Stevick (1980), Benseler & Schulz (1980), Blair (1982), British Council (1982), Roberts (1982). The most important of these approaches are the Silent Way (see Young in this volume and Gattegno 1976), Suggestopedia (see Bancroft, Machado and Schuster in this volume, and Lozanov 1978, Bélanger 1978, Saféris 1978), Community Language Learning (see Rardin and Grosjean in this volume, and Curran 1976), and Confluent Teaching (see Galyean 1976a, 1976b, 1977). In spite of the differences, there is one feature which all these language teaching approaches have in common, i.e. the emphasis on affective and social features in foreign language learning. We have to bear in mind, however, that these language teaching approaches have been developed by scholars who are not linguists. It is, therefore, interesting to note that Krashen (1981) has developed a theory of language acquisition and language learning which corresponds in many aspects to the basic principles formulated by those educationalists who are not linguists (see also Krashen & Terrel 1983). A closer study of these relationships resulted in the conception of a synthesis which we decided to call The Explorative-Creative Way (see Knibbeler 1983). The aim of this paper is to define the Explorative-Creative Way (section 1), to delineate its operating principles (section 2), to describe the teacher's behaviour and her/his qualities (section 3), and to outline current research on the Explorative-Creative Way (section 4).

1 DEFINITION

The first step in the genesis of this approach is a description of the good language learner. For this description we rely in particular on Naiman *et al.* (1978). This starting-point will lead to an outline of the good language teacher. This way of thinking presupposes two facts. First, the teacher's task is not only to transfer linguistic knowledge or to develop linguistic skills, but also to foster those attitudes and habits which make the language learner a more skilful language user, that is, a person who is dexterous in manipulating the linguistic knowledge (s)he has acquired. Second, language teaching is successful to the extent to which the learner is willing to communicate in the target language and to which (s)he is disposed to search in her/his own resources for the linguistic tools (s)he needs in order to communicate. The consequences of this principles are that self-discovery and creativity guarantee success in language learning endeavour. Therefore, the teacher's main task is to create an environment which stimulates the students to be creative searchers. This leads us to the definition of the Explorative-Creative Way as an approach in which the teacher encourages the students to investigate the target language and to tap the linguistic resources currently available to them in order to have them produce a maximum amount of new meaningful utterances. This definition results in a number of operating principles, which are, however, closely related.

2 OPERATING PRINCIPLES

The concept of the good language learner dictates the methods by which the teacher can create good language users.

2.1 *Exploration*

The language learner who continually searches for a sound, a word, a structure or an expression, or for the meaning of a linguistic element, will get a solid command of the target language. Most beginners in language learning are false beginners, because they do already have some linguistic knowledge which they can profit from. The language learner can find out more than one might currently imagine. Consequently, the only task for the language teacher is to supply what the learner cannot find or to structure what the learner cannot structure. Therefore, the teacher will act upon each sign of curiosity coming from the student. (S)he will present new elements in an unclear way in order to foster an attitude of exploration. The correct form of an utterance is often the ultimate result of an inquiry conducted by the individual student, assisted, if necessary, by classmates. The most successful language teachers are not those who explain clearly. Sometimes, confusion stimulates language exploration and language use, and successful exploration increases the motivation to learn.

2.2 *Creativity*

There is interaction between exploration and creativity, since the explorer is forced to invent solutions or to think of alternative ways when searching for solutions. Thus, creativity is part of exploration. Each linguistic creation is an activity which accelerates the learning process, because the language act is basically a creative act. Consequently, the teacher will incite the students to produce new utterances beyond the programmed exercises. Therefore, all procedures which lead to new utterances, such as games, improvisations and fine arts, will play an important role in the classroom.

2.3 *Motivation to communicate*

Motivation to communicate is as important as motivation to learn, because communication is the key to language acquisition. As soon as the language learner succeeds in using the target language to meet the communicative needs of the Here and Now, (s)he will advance rapidly. One learns more in situations in which one is involved in communication than in situations in which one is concerned with the language only. Thus, language use is part of language learning. Consequently, the teacher will respond to the students' communicative needs and (s)he will give priority to those language elements which have to be used at that particular moment for the particular idea, opinion or problem the students are concerned with, in the particular situations which happen to occur in the classroom. The teacher adjusts her/his programme to the events of the Here and Now, in order to provide the students with opportunities to say in the target language what they really want to say. Here again, the students are advised not to concentrate on words only, but to explore their own repertoire in order to get their message across.

2.4 *Affectivity*

Motivation to communicate is often a function of affectivity. An utterance generated by an emotion is a whole-person event. Consequently, the teacher picks up every emotion which appears in the classroom. (S)he stimulates the students to express their feelings in the target language and (s)he presents the words, structures, expressions, interjections and intonation patterns they need to voice these feelings. It should be remembered, however, that (s)he will do this in a rather vague manner, in order to stimulate the students' explorative attitude at the same time. On the other hand, the teacher has to make sure that the students have at their disposal the linguistic tools necessary for expressing their feelings.

2.5 *Economy*

The language learner will become proficient in the target language to the extent to which (s)he has got the skill to produce a lot of language from a small vocabulary. Consequently, the teacher stimulates students to tap fully the resources of their linguistic knowledge instead of extending their vocabulary all the time. (S)he will urge the students to engage in in-depth investigation.

2.6 *Listening to one-self*

Explorations in the classroom are not restricted to the domain of lexical items, structures and idioms, but they start from the very beginning, as soon as the students acquaint themselves with the phonetic system of the language, since an adequate pronunciation and proficient oral comprehension depend upon the power of discrimination which the student acquires with regard to her/his own articulation repertoire. Consequently, the teacher stimulates the students to listen to their own attempts at pronunciation. (S)he refrains from presenting pronunciation models, but only signals to the students whether their trials are correct, close to or remote from the target. If the teacher refrains from presenting a model, this does not mean that no models are generated in the classroom. On the contrary, models created as a result of exploration are more effective than models which are only perceived.

2.7 *Level-appropriate input*

Sometimes the linguistic environment is not useful for the language learner, because the message does not come across, as a result of a speed of utterance which is too high, a register which is unfamiliar or because of the level of complexity. On the other hand, language produced by classmates is usually comprehensible, and therefore the language learner will gain more profit from it. A simplified code is more useful, especially in the initial stages. Consequently, the teacher will often call upon students to speak and (s)he will stimulate students to listen to classmates.

2.8 *Autonomy*

The language learner who can decide for herself/himself which learning route (s)he wants to take, i.e. the learner who often takes initiatives, will become independent of the teacher and the learning process will not stop after (s)he has left school. Consequently, the teacher will respond to students' initiatives, and subordinate her/his teaching to their learning. (S)he will not stick to her/his lesson plan and teaching material, but will respond to the spontaneous initiatives of the class. If the students are not used to taking initiatives, (s)he will stimulate them to make the first move just by holding back her/his intentions. As long as the teacher remains in the background and refrains from giving the native or near-native model or the final solution to a linguistic problem, (s)he introduces a situation of doubt which challenges the students to keep searching for the appropriate target language elements. In short, the teacher will keep a low profile.

2.9 *Risk-taking*

The language learner who is made to solve her/his own problems and who is often referred to her/his own linguistic resources is obliged to make decisions, and in many cases this means taking risks. Risk-taking in situations of doubt is a condition for rapid language learning. Moreover, the learner who is in the habit of taking risks in cases of doubt has learned to live with uncertainty. This attitude fosters tolerance of ambiguity, which furthers the development of language comprehension. Consequently, the teacher will encourage hesitant students to overcome fear by tolerating errors. In order to stimulate the students to take risks in language use, the teacher introduces language games and exercises which stimulate spontaneous speech. The teacher advises the students not to ask how to say what they want to say, but rather first to imagine a number of possible utterances and then to select the most likely possibility.

2.10 *Self-confidence*

Self-confidence is a prerequisite for risk-taking and therefore for rapid language acquisition. On the other hand, successful risk-taking enhances self-confidence. Consequently, the teacher will neither severely criticize nor enthusiastically praise the students' language use. (S)he is convinced that everybody will become a proficient language user, provided the learner is allowed to work at her/his own speed. The teacher will show a positive attitude towards her/his students. If her/his teaching does not produce the desired result, (s)he will be inclined to impute this failure to her/his incapacity rather than to intellectual or affective weaknesses of her/his students. Thus, the teacher creates an atmosphere of nurturing security.

The above ten operating principles are corollaries, i.e. one element is a natural consequence of the other, in the sense that, together, they make up a coherent system.

3 TEACHER

In section 2 we have described teaching behaviour derived from the concept of the good language learner. It is worthwhile, however, to note that the teacher can be explorative and creative only by analogy, and that these two qualities relate to the learner, properly speaking. As a matter of fact, the learner is supposed to be explorative and creative; if (s)he is not, (s)he has to become so. The question is, to what extent students who are not explorative or creative by nature will be able to acquire such behaviour. The answer depends upon the teacher's capacities for making her/his students explore and create. Therefore we will, first, define the characteristics of the teacher in the Explorative-Creative classroom and, second, present some guidelines (s)he has to observe.

3.1 *Teacher's personality*

The "Explorative-Creative" teacher is understanding and can easily put herself/himself into someone else's position and share ideas and feelings with her/his students. The teacher is able to notice subtle events which take place in the classroom and is quick to observe the most delicate feelings existing among the students. The teacher makes functional use of all that happens spontaneously in the classroom. (S)he rearranges her/his lesson plan, taking unexpected turns initiated by the students into consideration. (S)he is never disturbed by unpredictable events and is able to improvise when the need arises. The teacher is also sometimes a dominant person who intervenes every time the students are in danger of losing their way or of getting frustrated. (S)he is the expert who controls the learning process and whom the students can rely on when they feel lost; (s)he orchestrates and organises spontaneous reactions from and activities by the students; (s)he is a skilful classroom manager. The teacher knows (s)he is up to her/his job. This feeling of knowing that one is able to do a job successfully creates a climate of security in a class which seems to struggle with real problems. The teacher is ready to wait, (s)he adapts her/his rate of teaching to the learning pace of the individual students. Finally, the teacher is highly interested in the learning process in which (s)he has the privilege to participate. The teacher herself/himself becomes more and more an explorative and creative person, because, on the one hand (s)he keeps searching for the various learning processes which take place in her/his classroom, and, on the other hand, (s)he tries to find, or rather to create, solutions to problems which are often unpredictable.

The above characteristics constitute the picture of the ideal "Explorative-Creative teacher". The Explorative-Creative Way is not a method which one either adopts or rejects; rather it is a model which every teacher can approximate and it usually takes time to implement it authentically. It is worthwhile, however, to outline what the practical implications in the classroom are.

3.2 *Guidelines for the teacher*

In the Explorative-Creative Way the students get their initial input from the teacher, but (s)he has to observe the following instructions.

First, before presenting a new word, structure or expression, before explaining a meaning and before giving the pronunciation or the spelling of any linguistic element, the teacher tries to find out to what extent the students are able to find the solution, to use the appropriate utterance or to grasp the meaning on the basis of the knowledge of their mother tongue, or of other languages, even from the very beginning. On the other hand, (s)he avoids wild guessing, which could be frustrating.

Second, the initial input is somehow structured, in the sense that the teacher has anticipated a framework, which, (s)he does not present to her/his students explicitly. Sometimes, the students put in circulation words or structures the teacher considers to be unsuitable for that specific stage in the learning process. In that case, (s)he ignores the demands of the students. At other times, the students may not come up spontaneously with words or structures which the teacher gives vague hints to lead the students where (s)he wants them to go. Thus, in the Explorative-Creative language classroom the students get the feeling that the material to work on is open, while in fact the teacher imposes constraints on the language material which will be dealt with.

Third, when the teacher wants the students to learn a specific aspect or a specific function, (s)he never tells them beforehand what the linguistic aim of the classroom activity is. (S)he leaves it to the students to ask questions about this.

Fourth, when the teacher gives a stimulus to speak, i.e. a cartoon or a text, her/his primary task is to wait for any spontaneous response. After that, (s)he provides suggestions for stimulating linguistic production.

Fifth, course materials, are incomplete. All basic material has to be completed or structured by the students. There is no grammar book; during the course, students make up their own grammar, formulate their own grammatical rules, invent their own grammatical examples.

The Explorative-Creative Way is still being developed, and its ultimate form will depend upon the outcome of research.

4 RESEARCH PROJECT

In our research we try to answer the following questions.

4.1 What is the impact of the teacher's personality on the implementation of the Explorative-Creative Way? Bialystok *et al*. (1979: 7) state that: "it is evident that the specific behaviors used by two different teachers may vary greatly even though they are implementing the same teaching program, or even presenting the same lesson. If these individual differences have significance for the teaching-learning process.... then a general reference to overall methods or approaches is inadequate for the purposes of describing second language teaching and relating that teaching to learning outcomes". Knibbeler (1984) found in an empirical comparative study that, although Suggestopedia and the Silent Way are based upon opposite educational theories and are implemented through quite different teaching techniques, the results in the experimental groups turned out to differ very little. On the contrary, it appeared that it was the teacher who was responsible for any significant variations in the outcome, rather than the approach adopted, in spite of the researcher's endeavour to control the teacher variable. Maleville, in this volume, collected data about three teachers from Knibbeler's project. She found some slight support for her hypothesis that teachers with a strongly featured personality score better results than teachers with a weakly featured personality.

4.2 To what extent does intended behaviour coincide with actual behaviour? Fullan (1982) shows that there is often a gap between what teachers think they do and what they actually do in the classroom. If we want to validate innovative approaches in foreign language methodology, we need better insight in what actually happens in the classrooms of teachers who claim to be innovative.

4.3 To what extent can teachers be educated to implement The Explorative-Creative Way? Even if we are able to describe the features of the most effective teaching approach, this result would not be useful if we do not succeed in meeting the requirements for implementation on a large scale. For instance, if we have to make our teachers participate in a long in-service training programme, or if we need exceptionally gifted teachers or experienced teachers to implement our teaching model, we had better quit this way and be more practical. In order to answer the third question, repeated measurings are planned during the training period. We remind the reader, however, that The Explorative-Creative Way is not a method to adopt or to reject, it is rather a model the teacher can approximate gradually, and this process may take a long time.

4.4 To what extent do successful teachers who are unacquainted with The Explorative-Creative Way behave in accordance with the Explorative-Creative model? The answer to this question will enable us to validate our model from the outside. For it is worthwhile to know if the theoretical basis of the model is supported by educational facts. Moreover, we wonder whether our model is complete in itself and whether we are not neglecting important features. However, the problem is how to define the successful language teacher and which criteria to use for selection. We found some answers to these questions in Sanderson (1983), who describes case studies of the methods used by nine successful foreign language teachers in different types of comprehensive schools.

4.5 How do students appreciate the Explorative-Creative treatment? In the Explorative-Creative class, the students' own initiative, resourcefulness and creativity are continually appealed to. Previous school experience mostly does not fit in with this situation, and therefore, students may initially feel uncomfortable. The question may be asked whether the teacher's reticent behaviour enhances student motivation and whether the dimensions and intensity of this motivation change as the students become more experienced in this teaching approach.

In order to answer the five above research questions the following instruments are used. First, an observation grid, to be filled in by observers who are familiar with the Explorative-Creative model. For methodological issues on the construction and the use of observation schemes I refer to Bailey (1977), Fanselow (1977) and Fanselow in this volume, Freudenstein (1977), Lone (1980) and OISE (1983). Our observation scheme deals only with four characteristics i.e. Exploration, Creativity, Affectivity and Motivation to communicate, because the other ones cannot be scored by observable behaviour. The observers score student behaviour as well as teacher behaviour. This enables us to define to what extent the student behaviour has been stimulated, allowed, slowed down or hindered by the teacher.

The second research instrument is a questionnaire, to be filled in by the same observers as mentioned before, as well as by the students and by the teacher. The questionnaire includes the observable characteristics of the Explorative-Creative Way and asks about teacher behaviour and student behaviour. It consists of ten pre-coded questions with a five-point scale and a space for comments after each questions.

The third research instrument is formed by impressionistic reports to be written by "connoisseurs" as defined by Eisner (1979). This author describes the forms and functions of educational connoisseurship and educational criticism. He advocates a kind of educational inquiry which is qualitative in character and which takes its lead from the work that critics have done in literature, theatre, music and visual arts. Ochsner (1979) is on the same line when he makes a distinction between the nomothetic tradition of science and a hermeneutic mode of inquiry. He claims that these two approaches to science have to be considered as two kinds of research with equal status. In our project the connoisseurs are requested to capture how the teacher and the students interact and what happens inside the heads of teacher and students. They are supposed to express their thoughts and feelings in a spontaneous way. The teacher is not allowed to read their reports.

The fourth research instrument is formed by dairies, to be written by students and teachers on the basis of guidelines which indicate directions without coaxing. The diarists are supposed to write down their feelings and impressions spontaneously and not to worry about spelling or handwriting. The teacher is not allowed to read the students' diaries.

The last research instrument is a standardised personality test, to be filled in by the teacher.

The informants in the current project are the students, the teacher observers who are familiar with the Explorative-Creative Way and observers who are not. The data to be collected in the project are quantitative and qualitative in nature. The frequencies in the observation grids are correlated to the scores of corresponding behaviour in the questionnaires. In the analysis of the diaries, the connoisseurs' reports and the comments in the questionnaires, it is investigated which of the ten characteristics of the Explorative-Creative Way are mentioned, with what profile, and which new features are mentioned, and with what profile.

The project will answer questions which can be considered to be relevant for a better insight in recent views on foreign language teaching. The project is distinguished by the diversity of the instruments used, and its methodological importance lies in the fact that qualitative data are tested by comparison with quantitative ones. Answers to the question, how language teachers who hold modern views on foreign language teaching actually behave in the classroom, and how students experience this, may result in a basis for a more rationalized training of foreign language teachers.

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UNORTHODOX APPROACHES TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE METHODOLOGY
or
VARIATIONS ON THE THEME: FOREIGN LANGUAGE METHODOLOGY

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> *"Today widespread dissatisfaction is felt among language teachers and methodologists about current methods of foreign language teaching." (Titone 1978: 206)*

In his address to the TESOL Convention in New Orleans in March 1971 John B. Carroll pleaded for a synthesis between the audio-lingual habit theory and the cognitive code learning theory. Foreign or second language instruction, however, is by no means situated on a line between these two theories. This is especially the case in the United States where only 15 per cent of all High School students take a foreign language and where less than 5 per cent ever reach a third year (Perkins 1980).

An attempt is made below to give a delineation of a few of those rather unorthodox approaches to foreign language teaching which the author had occasion to experience. Such concepts as Individualization or that fascinating histrionic approach fathered and practiced by John Rassias in his Dartmouth Intensive Language Model (Wolkomir 1980), where Rassias tries to hustle the students out of the Valium valley of traditional foreign language instruction, cannot be dealt with here. In the conclusion an attempt - perhaps personal - is made to extract a sort of quintessence out of these unorthodox approaches by posing the question as to what they can teach us.

1 CONFLUENT EDUCATION

Necessity is the mother of invention. Foreign language instruction was indeed in a dilemma when as a consequence of the students' revolt at the end of the 1960's one criterion for meaningfulness was being applied: that of relevancy. To American youngsters, foreign languages were (and still are?) just not relevant. Student enrollment in foreign language courses went down and down.

It seems that the problems for foreign language teachers were particularly acute in California, from where the trouble had mainly originated. Consequently some Californian foreign language instructors, led by Beverly Galyean, joined forces and decided to find out by questioning students about how they would like to use the foreign language, how the foreign/second language could become relevant, serve their purposes best.

As was to be expected, the students gave various answers. The common thread, however, was that students wanted to discuss more of their personal real-life situation during their language classes. They did not just want the language, they wanted to use it to learn more about themselves and each other, to study the target culture and to have more personal contact with the others in the class.

This meant for the teachers the challenge to organize their teaching in such a way as to incorporate those introspective and interpersonal elements (Galyean 1979).

It was not difficult to find a programme rationale to meet these demands. Already in 1967 a group of Gestalt psychologists and educationalists led by George I. Brown had met at the University of California in Santa Barbara and had founded the concept of *Confluent education*. Roughly speaking, this is a branch of that education movement which is sometimes also termed "humanistic", "affective", "psychological", "emotional" (Moskowitz 1978: 11)[1] or even "integrative".

The goal of this humanistic[2] education is the development of all the human potential. The human being is thereby conceived as an acting individual not as one that "is made". All its aspects: cognitive as well as emotional, physical or interactive, have, according to the concept of holism, to be taken into consideration and have to be respected.

Confluent education, then, is an ecological system where the students' needs are assessed and built on. They are to be found primarily in three areas: the intrapersonal, the interpersonal and the extrapersonal. None of these three areas is to be neglected. The teaching objectives should, therefore, take into consideration the affective, interactive, and cognitive aspects; in fact all three should flow together, become "confluent".

Thus, Confluent education implies more than just interaction. It is affiliated to Gestalt-education. Its keywords are *self-awareness, personal growth*.

In short, Confluent education offered itself to those foreign language teachers in need, and B. Galyean remained the driving force behind its application to foreign language instruction. Confluent education was amalgamated with traditional foreign language instruction and, thus, an appropriate response to the challenge was found. (Galyean 1979). The teachers now began to consider the cognitive objective (the language task to be mastered), they selected confluent introspective (personal growth) exercises that could easily be adapted to textual lessons, and they also incorporated appropriate exercises where students could discuss themselves. All elements, cognitive, affective and communicative, were integrated.

What does it look like in practice?

First, the cognitive objective, say a linguistic structure, is fixed. Then the teacher considers which exercise would enable the students to talk about themselves while using this particular linguistic means.

Let us look at an example of Galyean's from a French lesson[3]:

the cognitive aim was to reinforce the verbs *être, aimer, préférer, détester, adorer, étudier, aller* and *désirer*. For this purpose, the students had to complete open ended statements with the information they considered real and personal (affective objective). They were then to share the information with each other (interactive objective) either in pairs or in small groups:

Je suis une personne qui est ...
qui aime ...
qui préfère ...
qui adore ....
qui étudie ...
qui va
qui désire ...

It is obvious to any teacher that the problem of lack of vocabulary arises here. That can be overcome by providing the students with lists of possible expressions from which they can select the appropriate ones to complete their sentences. Another possibility is to allow the students to use their mother tongue. The students are corrected or the teacher gives the target version which is then practiced immediately.
Such personalized exercises are then followed by a series of reinforcement questions:
T. Qui est nerveuse et optimiste?
S. Barbara est nerveuse et optimiste.
T. Toi, tu es aussi nerveuse?
S. Quelque fois. Mais en général, je suis enthousiaste et chaleureuse.
T. Qui préfère la cuisine chinoise?
S. Barbara préfère la cuisine chinoise.
T. Toi, tu préfères aussi la cuisine chinoise?

After the completion of such reinforcement questions, the students are invited to discuss the information with each other.

The purpose of Confluent education is thus to integrate - make "confluent" - the objectives of traditional teaching, such as cognitive subject mastery, with the nontraditional goals of self-awareness and acceptance, positive interpersonal relations, responsible nonmanipulative behaviour, and the means of ongoing personality integration (Galyean 1976a: 22).
The field of practical foreign language instruction is therefore marked by these cornerstone goals (Galyean 1976a: 202):

1. Use of student output as the basis for language practice. This personal content may be either cognitive (ideas, thoughts, theories) or affective (feelings, interest, values, concerns, images).

2. High levels of student interaction and conversation.

3. The exploration of feelings and the sharing of personal affective content.

4. Awareness of "here and now" events both within an individual and within the class.

A curriculum outline for such an integrative foreign language instruction was presented by B. Galyean with her handbook of teaching strategies for personal growth and self reflection in language classes

(Galyean 1976b), not forgetting Moskowitz's sourcebook on humanistique techniques (1978).
Surely, Moskowitz was right in pointing out that foreign language teachers have always recognized the importance of personalizing the content by asking students related questions about themselves. But instead of just asking, say in the context of the family, "How many brothers and sisters do *you* have?" Confluent/humanistic education wants to go deeper, below those factual, superficially personal questions. There, questions might be: "How does it feel to be the oldest (youngest, or middle) child? What advantages and disadvantages are there?" (Moskowitz 1978: 15)

Perhaps one more important point should be made. Responsible teachers focus not only on the learner, the individual person as such with all his varied needs, but more specifically on the persons' positive aspects. These aspects are the ones which can be shared and talked about with others without harm. (In this respect the movement represents to a certain degree a reaction to that type of educational philosophy where the ultimate goal was to criticize everything and to concentrate mainly on conflicts.)
Of course to judge what is "positive" is a rather subjective enterprise and dangers of informing upon the learner's personality might ensue. So unlike Moskowitz's book another one might well prove not dangerous at all and not less helpful in return. It focusses on grammar points - well familiar to any teacher - but invites to fill in the structures with a personal content, thus forcing the learner to concentrate on content and elaborate it in interaction (Frank & Rinvolucri 1983). It goes without saying that put-downs are to be shied away from as the devil shies away from holy water.

First research results concerning the effectiveness of this integrative foreign language instruction seem to indicate that oral and written skills improve in proportion to the frequency with which the teacher provides follow-up exercises of introspection or self-description after the introduction of new language material. The students who did best were those to whom such exercises were offered three times or more a week (Galyean 1977b).

A visible increase in enthusiasm occurred where these personal growth strategies were used for the first time in normal instruction. Students who had previously already switched off, suddenly participated actively in instruction. Some schools boast of having increased enrollments in foreign language courses with greater success.

Confluent education has actually found entrance into the official guidelines for instruction in foreign languages in the Los Angeles school district with its population of more than seven million inhabitants (Los Angeles City Schools 1977).

Attempts to transfer such an integrative foreign language instruction to the advanced English classes of a German village secondary school (where English is a mandatory school subject beginning with the ten/eleven-year-olds) at first confirmed the apprehension that pupils in Germany are primarily not so eager to talk about themselves as would seem to be the case in the US. Nevertheless, it was soon obvious that pupils, and particularly the weaker ones, suddenly showed far more participation and initiative and achieved better results (Huber 1980).

It would appear that the principles of confluent foreign language instruction can relatively easily be supplemented in any class, an enrichment which appears to bear fruit, particularly since language is thereby intimately linked to personal experience and thus better retained (Stevick 1976, Galyean 1978).

2 TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE (TPR)

The laments about the low success of foreign language instruction at schools (and colleges?) seems to have been the challenge for the psychologist James J. Asher to try and find a remedy for a school subject that to many students appeared to be the most difficult.

The result of his many experiments is his approach called Total Physical Response. This is perhaps the empirically best established method. It is significantly faster than others and is suitable for children and adults alike.

Starting from the concept that the assimilation of information and skills can be significantly accelerated by using the kinesthetic sensory system on the one hand and a model of how a child acquires its mother tongue on the other, Asher has based his strategy on three main points (Asher 1979: 4):

1. Understanding the spoken language should be developed in advance of speaking.

2. Understanding should be developed through movements of the student's body. The imperative is a powerful aid because the instructor can utter commands to manipulate student behaviour. Our research suggests that most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned through the skillful use of imperative by the instructor.

3. Do not attempt to force speaking from students. As the students internalize a cognitive map of the target language through understanding what is heard, there will be a point of readiness to speak. The individual will spontaneously begin to produce utterances.

With reference to 1.:
It is an undisputed fact that in the acquisition of L 1 and L 2 listening comprehension precedes speech. In a number of experiments (Asher *et al.* 1974, Winitz and Reeds 1973, Postovsky 1974, Thiele 1982) it has been shown that by strictly respecting this principle foreign language instruction can significantly increase its efficiency. Gary (1978) thoroughly discussed this proposed listening approach to beginning foreign language learning. The advantages are seen at several levels.
Cognitive advantage: On the basis of strong empirical evidence it can be said that being forced to concentrate also on listening at the moment of speaking distracts the learner from his main objective, namely, coming to terms with the underlying language system.
Affective advantage: Any attempted spoken performance in front of others before one is really confident of one's command is very stressful

and embarrassing, particularly for older children and adults. The learner's concentration and learning effectiveness is reduced.
In addition to the *efficiency advantage* there is the *utility advantage* since the receptive skills are needed more frequently.

In Gary and Gary (1981) two more advantages for delayed oral practice were pointed out: the first is a *communicative advantage*, since the listener has to cope with a message which he cannot predict and which s/he has to structure both pragmatically and linguistically. The second advantage mentioned, however, applies less to TPR: listening comprehension is the ideal companion for use with taped media and thus there is also a *media compatibility advantage*, a fact that is particularly relevant to advanced learners.
In short: "second language learning research has shown that having to practice speaking immediately while trying to develop listening comprehension interferes with the student's learning, disrupting the association process necessary for integration and recall for the language" (Gary 1978: 190).

With reference to 2.:
The experience that a combination of word and action facilitates learning or acquisition is certainly no new discovery in the history of language instruction. Harold Palmer in his book *English through Actions* labelled this: "Fuse the words to their meanings" (Palmer & Palmer 1970: 18). J.B. Carrol reminds us that: "The more numerous kinds of association are made to an item, the better are learning and retention." (Carroll 1966: 105). The immediately tangible advantages for the teacher in TPR are that he instantly sees in the way the student hesitates or carries out the command whether s/he has understood the language utterance.
For the student, too, his activity provides him with immediate feedback and confirmation that s/he can function in the foreign language. Together with the satisfaction of a natural longing for movement, which a skilful and imaginative teacher can make rather varied and full of surprises, this may evoke quite an increase in motivation.

With reference to 3.:
The reasons for this point have already been given above. It has been proved repeatedly that the transfer from listening and reading (as early as the second lesson, the teacher may start writing on the blackboard commands given previously; later on commands written on a slip of paper may be handed out) to speaking occurs at a later time without any problems. The sequence of the skills is thus by no means fixed. Speaking as the most difficult skill, because it is the most complex one and is to be executed in a rather narrow range of time (Mackey 1965: 263, 229), can be introduced most successfully after the other two skills, as has been shown by Postovsky (1974).

When, after a few lessons, students start speaking of their own accord and take over the role of the teacher (who then retires more and more and/or is himself asked to perform certain actions) these voluntary student teachers as experience has shown, pronounce the language so correctly that their still hesitant classmates are actually exposed only to highly correct linguistic input. This is another reason for the success[4] of this approach.

What does TPR teaching practice[5] look like?
The teacher who has prepared himself in detail will first utter commands like "Stand up! Sit down!" and proceeds completely monolingually. In

this first presentation phase of the new linguistic items he will carry out the commands himself together with the students. When the teacher senses that the students are sure what the words mean, he will remain still and only the students perform. With each new word, however, the teacher will provide through his behaviour (gestures, actions etc.) a simultaneous and absolutely obvious semanticization of the new item (situational, pragmatic context), for instance, when he commands "Point to the door! Point to the chair! Point to the table!"
Thus, the whole linguistic performance is embedded in an unambiguous situational context. Each learning step will add, at the most, three new items so that the memory span of the students is not overtaxed. Later on, the material already learned is continuously repeated.

Total Physical Response can be practiced with a class of any size. In small groups, where they may sit in a circle, all students participate in the actions at first, untill one particular student is asked, say, to open the window. To anyone watching a TPR class it is astonishing what mimics and gestures can do to semanticize language. With larger classes only a minority serve as guinea-pigs at first. Again it is striking to observe how students who up to that point were apparently not participating and just sitting at the back of the class, perform such a command when they are addressed just as well as the others; a proof of the extent to which they too feel involved and have internalized the language offered.

Each utterance used by the teacher (student input) is semanticized in a situation so unambiguously that understanding presents no difficulties (it can easily become student intake) as it appeals to the sense of hearing, seeing and often touch. Furthermore, the new language material is so carefully tuned in its progression that the learner can easily build it up and insert it in his personal system of the new language. Should there be hesitation in the execution of the command or should it even be wrongly executed, the teacher can then deduce at once where the uncertainity lies and execute the command together with the student. The teacher will make absolutely clear what the words mean and will practice the item in question immediately, repeating it afterwards.

I have always found an extraordinarily high concentration and at the same time a rather relaxed atmosphere because the students realize how rapidly they are progressing and because each listener is provided with immediate feedback as to the correctness of his hypothesis about the meaning of the previous utterance. Every instruction is accompanied by bodily movements, that is, physical tension and relaxation, and in addition the teacher or students may well give humorous or unexpected commands (an invitation like "Paul, touch Mary" will always have affective overtones).

According to teachers practicing TPR this aproach greatly reduces the importance of language aptitude. Each student constantly experiences that s/he is mastering the challenges of the new language, that is, s/he constantly experiences him-/herself as a success - and success breeds success.

Precise progression is necessary in order not to overtax the learners and to enable them to experience learning as playful and without stress. This demands minute preparation by the teacher. Without his slip of paper on which he has previously marked the single gradual steps - again, it is astonishing how much language and how many new words the students can playfully cope with in one lesson - even a conscientious teacher will hardly manage.

The following example may show that in somewhat advanced instruction the practicing phase following the presentation phase is in principle similar: One student is standing in front of a calendar (visual media obviously play an important role) and is asked "Today is Thursday. Point to tomorrow, to yesterday, etc." And even grammar instruction is possible: "Go to the board and point to a count noun."
Reading - and similarly writing - can be introduced by means of word cards which are distributed. The other skills besides listening need not suffer. Language material for productive performance by the student is not required until a number of lessons after its presentation and the subsequent repetitions.

The objection raised, usually quite spontaneously, after a theoretical delineation of Total Physical Response is that commands as the central form of communication are diametrically opposed to the claims for social, symmetrical partnership in the classroom. After a short demonstration lesson this objection is quickly dropped. What happens is that in this type of instruction a very close feeling of community between students and teacher very rapidly grows. Maybe because everyone involved observes one another so intensively and is so absorbed in what is going to happen and in what is happening that they just have no 'attention space' left to feel, for instance, self-conscious. Incidentally, the fact that speaking creating speech acts cannot be demonstrated more clearly. Each linguistic utterance incites hypotheses as to its meaning, provokes longing for feedback and that creates a certain thrill. The thrill is there because there are moments of silence during which neurologically a lot happens, namely, the mind makes combinations, familiar language material is recognized, the physical, social, pragmatic situation is analysed and the whole utterance processed.

Most certainly Total Physical Response cannot be applied to all linguistic structures, and all practicing teachers of TPR I have talked to agreed on this[6]. They also agreed that TPR was "the least stressful way" of instructing beginners and that later practically every lesson could contain elements of it.

TPR has been recommended for slow learners (Hillebrand 1974, Schwerdtfeger 1976), which, however, could be too narrow a conception. The proverb:

> We listen and we forget
> We see and we remember,
> We do and we understand.

might well be valid for all foreign language students.

3 THE SILENT WAY

Access to the Silent Way approach (its author vehemently objects to the term 'method') seems extremely difficult. After an Odyssey-like life the inventor of ***algebricks, animated geometry, words in color***, and of the ***Silent Way***, the mathematician and educational philosopher Caleb Gattegno, today directs the institute called Educational Solutions Inc. in New York City. The access is difficult because Gattegno's language and way of thinking are rather unusual, so that unprepared observers may become so irritated that they spontaneously react more emotionally than rationally. When on top of this it is claimed "Dr. Gattegno has for the last forty years been at work to find what was needed in education to replace the prevalence of opinion by that of facts" (Anon. 1977: 3), then the curious observer seems to be left only with the choice of either believingly idolizing him as the big guru or to put him aside as a charlatan.

In his numerous publications, the outsider Gattegno has practically never directly referred to other publications and for a long time he was himself (almost) ignored in revenge. He became known because of a review, at first apparently unnoticed, by Earl W. Stevick in *TESOL Quarterly* 1974, which Stevick also included in his book *Memory, Meaning and Method* in 1976. Since then Silent Way has been talked about more and more (Blatchford 1976, Fanselow 1977, Hines 1979, Rivers 1979, Varvel 1979, Benseler and Schulz 1980, Diemer and Panya 1980, Stevick 1980, Knibbeler 1981, Roberts 1981 and others).
Stevick at that time noticed a surprising conformity with some psychological research results and concluded, quite surprisingly, that this "bizarre way of learning and teaching" was "possibly the most undervalued pearl on the market today" (Stevick 1976: 146).
Let us look at some of the sometimes so elusive principles which Gattegno (1963, 1972, 1976) professes.

The underlying basis is formed by the subordination of teaching to learning. The teacher's primary task is to mobilize the linguistic and intellectual abilities of the learner. (It is curious to notice the - never mentioned - proximity to the integrative, humanistic education.) *Freeing the Students* (the title of the first chapter in *The Common Sense*) is the first task of the teacher as the facilitator, so that the students reach an *awareness* of their personal capabilities.

In practice this means that the teacher, not so much by means of minimal linguistic input (s. below) but by gestures, mimics and media almost literally provokes the student to activate his/her creativity in language learning.
Being gingerly guided by the teacher, the students are led by trial and error to build up an inner system of rules, to develop their "inner criteria" which tell them, far better than any (primarily withheld) reinforcement by the teacher, whether they are right or wrong.

"Teachers must be concerned with what the students are doing with themselves rather than with the language, which is the students' concern." (Gattegno 1976: VII). Thus the Silent Way teacher forces the student to be constantly concentrated and to become a "good guesser" (Rubin 1975). As a consequence the teacher may grow more and more silent until it is only students who talk, which has led to the name of the approach.
While the students, seemingly all by themselves, like Socrates' dialogue partners of old, gradually and with the help of all their senses find their way within the new language system, their self-confidence is strengthened. Due to this total focussing on the individual students, Gattegno considers it impossible to fix a precise methodology for the Silent Way. Instruction is given monolingually in the target language, and all four skills are practiced very early which fits in with the concept of appealing to as many senses as possible.

The starting point is basically synaesthetic. "One bright idea and the rest is common sense. The bright idea was to attach colours to sounds." Hence the first lesson in the Silent Way, an approach that is now used in the teaching of more than twenty languages, starts off working with a wall-chart full of many-coloured rectangles whereby each colour stands for a specific sound[7].

Following the directions of the - almost magical - pointer which is moved with enormous speed, the students, after an initial brief model given by the teacher, form the sounds and soon the words and sentences of the new language without at first understanding what this all means. Right from the beginning the teacher insists on normal speed and authentic rhythm. Later on words are read from other wall-charts where the individual letters are printed with precisely the same colours as in the fidel so that straightaway words can be pronounced quite correctly.

An example of the mathematical precision with which Gattegno calculates the building-up of linguistic competence can be seen in his newly created term *ogden* (presumably in reverence to the inventor of BASIC English) which corresponds roughly to a morpheme. In his book *The Common Sense*, certainly not a guidebook for teachers but more Gattegno's outline of a curriculum, he describes exactly how he teaches his first lessons of the German numeral system. "The items they (the students) must memorize cost them about 25 ogdens, while the yield is enormous and very important." (page 31).
Within a very short period of intensive practice the student becomes "as good as the natives" in this matter, a fact that has positive consequences for the motivation and self-confidence of the learner.

The Silent Way is perhaps best known for using the *cuisenaire rods*, those many-coloured cubic sticks of varied length which are sometimes also used in maths lessons. Gattegno's experience is that they prove to be the most flexible media, since with the aid of the imagination of his students of any age they may represent simply everything. By means of these sticks not only colours, but also singular, plural, definite and indefinite article, verbs expressing movement (this approaches *the Total Physical Response*), comparison etc. can be introduced. The simple fact of their presence and of their being talked about, creates communicative situations. The new language, whose soundsystem was mastered with the help of those fidels, is now semanticized, is used communicatively. Incidentally Gattegno stressed this point as early as 1963, long before applied linguists or educationalists talked about "communicative competence". His conception of how a foreign or second language is acquired was even at that time pretty close to positions held by S. Krashen today.

It goes almost without saying that the element of *silence* as the timespan required for *cognitive processing* gets its due attention. The student is not rushed after a new task has been set up by changing the situation but is allowed to construct his hypotheses carefully.
Perhaps this makes clear why Gattegno so decidedly stresses that he is very much against *memorization*, but all for *retention*. The students have laboured mentally for their linguistic forms and so "we hold better in our minds what we meet with awareness." The latter is the decisive point, not *knowledge*. This is why he rejects imitative repetition. It might be mentioned as well that the Silent Way is by no means an approach only for the purpose of initiating students into a new language. It can be pursued even to the study of literature (Gattegno 1972).

Having in mind that Gattegno's overall objective "is the education of spiritual powers and sensitivity in the individual" it is not surprising that for Gattegno tests in the traditional sense do not exist. He says: "In conclusion we need only add that the Silent Way is the best test that has ever been developed because it assesses all the time - and therefore in a fair manner - what students have actually produced for themselves, by themselves, and within the time spent in contact with the challenges of a new language and with their teacher. The material and the techniques teach and test at the same time with the result that students can learn meaningfully without being mystified or intimidated." (Gattegno 1976: 138 f.)

It is by no means utopian for Gattegno to achieve with his approach in one school year what is normally attained at school in four years, perhaps even more.

Maybe it should be pointed out that the Silent Way has undergone certain changes as a result of Gattegno's experiences through the years and of technical progress. (The name Silent Way is supposed to exist only since 1963.) Gattegno (1977: 14) himself has presented his development in the following diagramme (SW= Silent Way):

	SW I	SW II	SW III	SW IV
Characteristics	Linguistic situations	Linguistic situations	Fluent speech first, numeration	Learning from learners on video tapes
Materials	coloured rods	wall charts, coloured rods, pointer	fidel, chalkboard, wall charts, coloured rods & pointer	sounds & images
Teacher	present, says things once	present, says some things once	present, says nothing	not visible, silent

The delineation of the Silent Way given here has certainly left many questions open*. It is, however, astonishing what can be seen and experienced by a person who dares to walk that "Silent Way", where - it seems - you have to go all the way or leave it altogether. It somehow appears to represent a challenging provocation in the educational field.

4 THE EXPLORATIVE - CREATIVE WAY

With the coming to the fore of Community Language Learning, Silent Way, Suggestopedia and Confluent Education the 1970s saw indeed a mushrooming of unorthodox approaches in the field of teaching second/foreign languages. Geographically situated in a country where learning/teaching two or three foreign languages is almost a matter of course, and known for his empirical research on the comparison of the approaches of Suggestopedia and Silent Way (Knibbeler 1981, and in press), teacher and scholar Wil Knibbeler at Nijmegen, the Netherlands, felt provoked to attempt a synthesis of all these apparently successful approaches. Fully aware of the importance of both the affective and the social element in foreign language learning, he based his new concept mainly on the Silent Way and called his approach the Explorative - Creative Way (Knibbeler 1983). It is, if one likes, the first "second generation new approach".

An analysis of successful language learners was the starting point for this approach. The two main features of good learners are found in their capacity for exploration and creativity. The approach got its name by aiming at challenging and stimulating precisely these two qualities in the learner.

As in Silent Way, teaching is to be subordinate to learning and so the teacher's task is to encourage the students "to investigate the target language, to tap the linguistic resources currently available to them and to produce new utterances."

What then are the characteristic features which the Explorative-Creative Way wants to strengthen within the learner?

At the beginning there has to be the will to delve into the new territory of the hitherto foreign language. The learner has to search to *explore* the sounds, words, structures etc. of the new language. But of course, the teacher will not allow wild guessing, which would be too time-consuming and thus frustrating. Instead, the teacher tries to find out to what extent the learners are capable of finding the solution, of using the appropriate utterance or of grasping the meaning on the basis, say, of the knowledge of their mother tongue, or of other languages.

In accordance with the attempts made by the learners, the teacher will provide the necessary feedback to the student, mainly by mutely signalling either through gestures or lip movements or by writing on the board. In this way he more or less vaguely indicates where the error was, if he thinks that a general showing of not being very pleased is too little help. In contrast to the Silent Way, the teacher may also show when he is satisfied with an utterance.

The initial linguistic input is structured in the sense that the teacher has prepared a framework, which however is not presented to the learners explicitly. If the students put into circulation words or structures which the teacher considers to be unsuitable for that specific stage in the learning process, the teacher does not meet the demands of the students. On the other hand if students do not come up spontaneously with the words or structures the teacher considers useful at the moment, he will give vague hints to lead the students to where he wants them to focus their attention. In other words, the teacher imposes constraints on the language to be dealt with while allowing the students to explore the language system the way they think it works and thus allowing them to discover the rules for themselves.

In thus inviting the students to solve the linguistic problems by drawing on their inner linguistic resources the students are invited to *take risks*. This means that they are invited to put their linguistic hypotheses to the test in an active way, a feature which is intensively encouraged. This, however, implies a high tolerance of errors, that is, the teacher will show a positive reaction to errors and accept them as important stepping stones towards perfection. The teacher's positive attitude, his creation of an atmosphere of security, thus contributes to the building up of the student's *self-confidence*, which will be stronger and stronger the more the student is able to establish what Gattegno calls the "inner criteria".

The self-confident learner will also be able to take responsibility for his own learning. He will take the initiative and will gradually become more independent of the teacher. This attitude again is gradually encouraged by the teacher who will more and more willingly respond to those initiatives and so contribute to the strengthening of the student's *autonomy*.

As was the case with Gattegno, language teaching is considered most *economical* when the teaching process provides a lot of language with only a little vocabulary.
The element of autonomy, of throwing the students back onto their own linguistic resourcefulness, of their gradually developing their own inner criteria, makes it logical that this principle is also implemented with regard to pronunciation. Right from the beginning, when the students are becoming acquainted with the phonemic system of the language, their power of sound discrimination, of *auto-audition*, is challenged and refined through appropriate signals from the teacher.

To process linguistic information, to start from the elements which the learner has already at his disposal and to hypothesize about the solution of a new linguistic problem, involves for the explorer an appeal to his *creativity*. The incitement of the students to produce new utterances beyond the programmed exercises is provoked by games, improvisation, fine arts etc.

As stated above, the Explorative-Creative Way also tries to take fully into consideration the *affectivity* of the learner, conceiving it as being often a function of creativity. Since an utterance generated by an emotion is seen as a whole-person event, it is recognized that it leaves a deep track in the speaker's memory. It is all too logical that the teacher thus picks up every emotion which arises in the classroom, just as the teacher invites the students to express their feelings in the target language while providing the required linguistic means to express these feelings.

Unlike what happens in the Silent Way, real objects, strip comics, cartoons etc. are brought into the classroom to stimulate the *motivation to communicate* even more intensely by placing the students in situations which require certain communicative activities. Having experienced from the beginning that it is not only him - or herself s/he can rely on but that his/her fellow learners also have information to contribute, the student has learned to take their reactions into consideration, that is, to use *near-learner input* as well. Course materials, if any, are incomplete. Every piece of basic material has to be completed or structured by the students.

If so far we have focussed mainly on the learner, the Explorative-Creative Way takes fully into consideration also the reverse side of the medal: the corresponding behaviour of the teacher. The teacher has to meet quite a number of requirements to fulfil his task: the qualities of empathy, sensitivity, flexibility, authority, self-confidence, patience, and last but not least love of the teaching profession. *Empathy* and *sensitivity* are necessary to enable him/her to see and feel the cognitive and emotional problems of the students. *Flexibility* is the teacher's counterpart of student creativity and drive for initiative. It seems, for instance, that some groups need more stimulation, occasionally even verbal, than others. *Authority* and *self-confidence* are needed to reassure the learners intellectually and emotionally, thus providing the required climate or frame-work of security. Within this framework, the learner is often faced with a task, about the solution of which he is at first uncertain. If the teacher exercises *patience* while the learner is struggling, then this again is not a frightful hole of emptiness but a framework of fertile quietness, a time span during which the learner can be sure that the teacher is sheltering him while watching him with keen interest to see how he is coping with the momentary problem.
The teacher, too, has to develop his share of creativity in order to give the learner optimal guidance on his way towards linguistic mastery and freedom.

It is obvious, then, that the Explorative-Creative Way is based on a rather optimistic concept of the learner and his abilities.

Since this approach has so far only been put into practice with adult learners and not with school children, the practicing foreign language teacher will still wait and see. What promises to be most interesting is that Knibbeler (quite unlike Gattegno who refuses, as we have seen, to even think of testing any of his students - let alone, we can presume, his approach of the Silent Way) is creating a whole network of research devices to evaluate this approach. The results will certainly be a great significance not only to those interested in the Silent Way or the Explorative-Creative Way.

5 HESITANT ATTEMPT TO EXTRACT THE QUINTESSENCE

Before taking the patient reader to a last round in this paper s/he is kindly invited to enjoy a description, albeit a rather brutally condensed one, of the approach called "Sensory Deprivation in foreign language teaching". The approach was presented by Michael Swan and Catherine Walter (1982) and published in the *ELT Journal* where it was received on April 1st, 1981. The five stages are

1. disorientation,
2. exposure,
3. sensory deprivation[*],
4. creative hallucination,
5. Babel; negotiation; resocialisation.

The suggested procedure is:

1 Go into the classroom, sit down and remain totally
silent. Refuse to give any information about the language
(or indeed to say anything at all) until the students
have worked themselves up into a frenzy.

2 Tell the students, in a cold patronizing tone of voice, that they are extremely fortunate in having been selected to take part in a language-teaching experiment. Give them brief (and preferably misleading) information about the nature and purpose of SD (Sensory Deprivation, see footnote 9) conditioning.

3 Issue blindfolds and ask students to curl up on the floor in a foetal position. Play the tape which you have prepared. (The topic is unimportant, provided the text cannot be understood by the students.) When the tape has finished, issue the class with earplugs. Wait until hallucinations are well under way, and then proceed as above.

In another article in the same journal Krashen et al. (1978) have pointed out rather reassuringly for foreign language teachers that "formal instruction is a more efficient way of learning English for adults than trying to learn it 'in the streets'". (Krashen *et al.*, however, said nothing about the bath-tub.) One may perhaps boldly assume that school children, too, learn foreign languages more efficiently at school than in the streets.

Still it seems legitimate to try and expand the all too narrow limitations of teaching efficiency we are all aware of, efficiency in steering the process of learning/acquisition.

- A Prerequisite to learning/acquisition seems to be the permeability of the "affective filter" (Dulay & Burt 1978, Krashen 1981). The input must get through. This means that in all these approaches the teachers are aware of the affective side of human interaction, that is, they know for instance that "how" something is said may be of greater importance than "what" is said. Teachers are aware of the effect of voice, facial expressions, gestures, body language etc. (Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia in particular, but also Confluent Education, Explorative-Creative Way, TPR or Silent Way).

- The student seems to take in and process this input best when s/he is not on the defensive, but when s/he is relaxed, receptive, and free of stress. (Suggestopedia in particular)

- In order to feel relaxed the student must have a feeling of security. This feeling of security has to be established at several levels:
  a) outer security: friendly atmosphere in the classroom, certainty that the people who are around are not enemies but can be trusted. (Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response, Explorative-Creative Way)

  b) inner security: what happens around the student (situationally and linguistically) can easily be understood (Total Physical Response).

- The linguistic material offered (input) must be of such a nature that the student can cope with at least the gist of it, can link it to previous experience (linguistic *and* non-linguistic), possibly by making use of his/her various senses.

(Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia, Explorative-Creative Way)

- This inner security is not to be jeopardized by asking the student to show behaviour which s/he does not feel fit for. For instance, the student will feel uneasy and somehow put under pressure if s/he is supposed to speak the new language, to use certain expressions before s/he feels competent to do so. The build-up of the inner linguistic security will be achieved when s/he has gone through a long enough phase of listening (TPR), which allows the avoidance of the counterproductive effect of early speech (Postovsky 1975).

- To keep his/her attention directed at the linguistic and related non-linguistic events offered, the student must be convinced that those events are of personal importance to him/her. This may happen if s/he feels intellectually challenged to solve the riddle in an analytical way and to try and put together the whole picture using those parts of the jig-saw puzzle s/he was able to get hold of so far (Silent Way). Another possibility would be that the student just enjoys doing something or realizes that those events may lead to a personal enrichment, a meaningful extention of his/her experience, which leads to emotional involvement (TPR, Confluent Education, Explorative-Creative Way).

- On the one hand, this means that the students should never be overtaxed too long nor undertaxed, that the teacher should preferably know precisely how competent the learner has become in the meantime (Total Physical Response).
  The teacher can then spread the challenge in such a way that the student can master it at least in a relatively short period. The student experiences him-/herself as successful and nothing succeeds like success, as the saying goes. Thus, the student's self-confidence is slowly established. (Explorative-Creative Way, TPR.)

- If attention is required for a longer period it must be taken into consideration that phases of physical and mental relaxation have to be provided as well. (TPR, Suggestopedia)

- Another consequence is that natural communication should be aimed at, i.e. the emphasis should be on the content of the utterance. Language must be experienced functionally, it must be used as what it is: a means to build bridges between people, a means of getting hold of ideas and interesting information (Confluent Education). The learner thereby experiences language in its various dimensions (cognitive, affective, social), including its purely linguistic ones (syntactic, semantic, pragmatic).

- To maintain personal involvement and attention it is useful to appeal to as many senses as possible. This is not only a help in understanding the semantic and pragmatic content better, as we have seen, but also a condition for better retention. (Confluent Education, Explorative-Creative Way, TPR, SW, Suggestopedia)
  If the student is invited to perform in the non-verbal field (drawing, acting, writing) s/he, as well as the teacher, are provided with immediate feedback.

- A corollary of the longing for security and of the establishment of self-confidence, of not overtaxing nor undertaxing the student, is the methodological device of graded linguistic progression. (TPR, SW.) This graded progression seems to be the main reason why formal instruction is more efficient than informal (Krashen *et al.* 1978).

- A further corollary of these factors is the teacher's positive attitude towards students' errors. This does not mean that the teacher will put up with some sort of pidgin (since communication can be established with it) and/or with allowing some sort of classroom jargon to fossilize. The teacher may allow and even encourage the student to put his/her linguistic hypotheses to the test; the teacher will, however, provide the student with the correct models - without any put-downs (Confluent Education) - in order to incite the student to perfect his/her "inner criteria" (SW). The teacher's task is to be aware of the feedback provided, through errors, by the student and to give in turn hints which enable the student to adjust his/her rules, his/her "inner criteria". The teacher then fulfils his function as a "facilitator" of the learning process.

- The frequency of contact with the new language phenomena is important. It is of use only, however, if the language is understood, at least the gist of it. (Language input of which the meaning cannot be deduced from situational and/or linguistic context risks being utterly frustrating.) The more language is processed the more certain the student's "inner criteria" or "Sprachgefühl" (the feel of the language) will become. Monolingualism, provided understanding is assured, has an asset here.

- One striking feature of those new approaches is that, while stressing firmly the friendly, homely atmosphere of the classroom, the teacher's role is one of rather high authority. This is striking because from the late sixties onward the concept of authority did not remain undisputed[10]. Authority, however, is logically necessary to cater for the need for (emotional) security and, cognitively, for setting the model of the language which the learner is to internalize.

- Pauses, silence, are again a characteristic feature, not only of the Silent Way, which serves to reduce stress on the one hand and not to overload short term memory on the other. The teacher in these new approaches is not afflicted with the "horror vacui". He does not consider the student's mind as a receptacle with a tremendous hole at the bottom that has to be filled incessantly. The teacher in these new approaches allows the student's mind to "digest" the language, allows the language to sink in, to be processed, reconstructed, re-created. Pauses are necessary, since less language can be more.

A burning question for language research which cannot, however, be solved here merely by having a closer look at these new approaches is whether there are basically two ways of internalizing a second/foreign language. Is there predominantly conscious learning on the one hand and predominantly subconscious acquisition on the other as Krashen (1977, 1981) suggests, or is there perhaps a sort of continuum between automatic and controlled processing of language input

(McLaughlin *et al.* 1983), or does conscious processing, reasoning, come last as D. Hofstadter assumes (Gleick 1983).
To the practicing teacher, however, this is at the moment only a theoretical problem. Psychology and experience tells us that linguistic items of personal significance are better retained particularly when taken in through and/or accompanied by the involvement of the various senses. This is hardly ever the case with forms of a language or with abstract linguistic rules. So in class focus is most economically directed at the content while the form is only focussed on if the student asks for an explanation because s/he feels that s/he has got stuck in a linguistic bog or continuously shows that s/he has great problems with sorting out a particular rule.

Now with regard to all these different new approaches a curious and courageous teacher, who refuses to make questions of methodology questions of faith or to engage in a war of ideology because of a perhaps provocative approach, may ask himself: Which of these approaches would fit me best? Which would best harmonize with my personality, my "humour"? - The Rassias method or Suggestopedia might appeal to lively, cheerful teachers, for example.

Another question may be: Would TPR or SW suit beginners best? Perhaps after the linguistic foundations have been laid Confluent Education could come in where it seems easier to provide grammatical structures and let the student fill in the content? And could CLL and Suggestopedia then prove most useful for more intermediate students? But then, to the pragmatic teacher, a great number of questions would arise with regard to the problem of how to dovetail these methods, while the staunch supporter of a particular approach or a methodological purist who requires a consistent theory all through the instruction would denounce this procedure .

Or the question might be asked: which students would advance quickest with which way? Would Suggestopedia be best for somewhat inhibited, psychically tense students who normally suffer from feeling fenced in, because there they might be invited to adopt the mask of a successful, balanced persona? Or would the absolute authority of the "godmotherly" counselor teacher in CLL be better for him or her? For more intellectual, reflective students the Silent Way may seem appropriate and to motorially active, younger, playful, impulsive students perhaps Total Physical Response may appeal most, while Confluent Education and the Explorative-Creative Way might just suit maturing or maturer students. Perhaps CLL or Suggestopedia might be best suited for holistic, field-dependent learners?

Interestingly enough, this question, in part at least, is already being examined by Knibbeler (in press) in a practical comparison of Suggestopedia and the Silent Way. And funnily enough the results seem to be that it is the teacher who "is responsible for important variation in the outcomes rather than the approach adopted."

So the decisive factor in foreign/second language teaching once again seems to be the teacher (Alfes 1982). But we also know that the "good learner" is the mentally active student, the "high input generator". (Seliger 1977, cf. also Rubin 1975, Naiman *et al.* 1978)

What then is the common denominator, the key to the riddle? It appears that it is the concept of challenge. The good teacher gets the student to engage in the enterprise, to become involved, to want to find out about all that, to negotiate[11] the meaning and the structures of that chain of sounds and symbols. (Scarcella and Higa 1981) And here undoubtedly the foreign language learner envies his colleague who teaches a second language because the latter's job is easier. The student of a second language knows and feels that he has to face the challenge of dealing with that language. For the learner of a foreign language all too often there is no personal need to deal with this school subject which just happens to be part of the curriculum.

Challenge seems to be the key concept because it is obvious that the teacher is well advised not to keep his students in a cradle of absolute security, like a Nirvana, but to present some incentive, to provoke the student to become active, at least mentally active. This right amount of challenge seems also to explain the contrast between "debilitating and facilitating anxiety" (Scovel 1978); if the challenge is too high, the student will feel that s/he can never cope with it, s/he feels threatened and the effect is debilitating. Facilitating anxiety would be caused by just the right dose of challenge so that the student mobilizes his/her abilities and tries to meet it. For the language teacher this means that he tries to challenge his students to the appropriate degree to explore the language material offered and make it their own, consciously or unconciously.

In order to maintain the involvement, to make the student stick to the task, the decisive element seems to be whether the learner is provided with the right feedback, to enable him/her to find out whether it is worth while to remain engaged in the task. Providing the right feedback (error correction is just one fraction of this complex) means keeping the mains system of the community going. (Perhaps it is in this field that the more traditional approaches have one of their weaker points. There, feedback is given not at all, unprecisely, too late, and/or sometimes in a way which is hard to swallow.) So in fact the feedback must be a mutual one; the teacher, too, must be sensitive to the feedback that is available through the students' behaviour, their linguistic output etc. and tune his teacher talk and activities accordingly; the student, on the other hand, must be sensitive to the situation, develop, try out and sensitively adjust his/her hypotheses. This is what "interaction", "negotiation" means.

To sum up these new unorthodox approaches, it seems that their common denominator is that they appear successful in provoking their students to become mentally active, to take up the challenge of coming to terms with a new language and to do so for quite a while. These approaches, too, present a challenge to all teachers to reconsider their practice and to try and test themselves whether there are any features which they could integrate ecclectically into their teaching and whether there are aspects that convince and work in practice. One question which they pose, while taking the linguistic competence of the teacher for granted, is whether perhaps the foreign/second language teacher is less an applied linguist than an applied socio-psychologist.

NOTES

1. Its genealogical tree is practically identical with R. Titone's glossodynamic model: "The names of the spokesmen of psychological humanism are well known: *Martin Buber* and his philosophy of dialogue, *Ludwig Binswanger*'s, *Victor Frankel*'s, and *Rollo May*'s existential psychology, *Abraham Maslow, Gordon Allport, Erich Fromm, Henry A. Murray, Joseph Nuttin* and others." (Titone 1978: 208)
2. To European ears the term "humanistic" sounds somewhat pretentious; first, because it rather aggressively insinuates that other educational concepts are somehow inhuman and second, because the term "humanistic" has other connotations implying the concepts of humanism as they were professed by people like Erasmus or Goethe. The term "confluent" seems more appropriate.
3. European readers should not forget that foreign language classes tend to be offered to students from the age of fourteen in the US.
4. Asher (^{2}1979) reports on experiences with and results of a German language course at the University of Texas, Austin: "First, listening and reading was assessed with the Modern Language Association Cooperative Foreign Language Tests. After only one semester of German in the experimental program based on commands, the average listening and reading skill in German was about the same as that of students completing the second semester of German in a traditional audiolingual program. Secondly, the proportion of students who went from the first to the second semester was historically only 50%, but with the innovative program about 75% elected to continue into the second semester. Thirdly, the motivation of students was appreciably increased as shown by student ratings."
5. In Asher (^{2}1979) a precise curriculum, with comments, for the first 53 lessons of an English course is given. In the appendix the interested reader is informed how to order films of master lessons.
6. One suggestion of how to introduce the past tense in a Spanish class was that students execute several commands. After a few minutes the teacher would ask who had run to the door etc. Or with regard to the introduction of the future tense: "When Luke walks to the window, Mary will write Luke's name on the blackboard." (Asher *et al*. 1974)
7. The name of the chart is *fidel*, supposedly an Ethiopean word.
8. Incidentially, the Silent Way Video Company offers video tapes with 140 thirty-minute-lessons taught by Gattegno; *English the Silent Way*. Quotation from the advertisement: "We can supply 1/2" cassette tapes (either in the VHS or Betamax System) at the price of U.S. $ 8,500.00 for the 140 lessons or 35 two-hour tapes for U.S. $14,000.00 (All shipping charges extra)." - Foreign language instruction as free enterprise.
9. "Stage 3: sensory deprivation. Subjects are then taken to their individual SD chambers. These are soundproof and lightproof cells, each containing a bath in which the water is kept at a constant temperature of 37°C - blood heat. Subjects are undressed and immersed in the baths, which are designed so as to force subjects to adapt a foetal position. Once the SD chambers are closed, subjects suffer almost total deprivation of sensory input."
10. "In the sixties, too many of us surrendered fundamental humanistic beliefs to the evanescence of student demands, community and political pressures - we sought the love of students and of the community and lost, soon after, their respect." (Gross 1980: 230)

11. "Negotiate" seems to be another key concept, also crucial for first language acquisition: "... through participation in dialogue in which meaning is negotiated, the child learns to control some of the formal systems that allow speech to be made relevant to the situational and interpersonal context. - It is this characteristic of 'mutual relevance' in a child's experience of conversation that we think may be important for his success on entry to school." (Wells 1979: 84 f.)

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ENSEIGNEMENT DE LA GRAMMAIRE DES LANGUES VIVANTES: QUELQUES PISTES.

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REMARQUE PRELABLE

Cette communication est à mettre en relation avec l'enquete de l'AIMAV, qui, à la demande de l'UNESCO, analyse les méthodes et techniques, ainsi que les perspectives d'avenir, concernant l'apprentissage et l'enseignement des langues. Elle a donc comme objectif principal d'indiquer au lecteur certains présupposés de l'enquete meme s'ils e sont pas novateurs. Nous situons cette réflexion dans les cadres généraux de la "centration sur l'élève" et de l'approche communicative.

1 LA GRAMMAIRE INTEGREE. CADRE GENERAL

La grammaire étant concue comme faisant partie d'un ensemble, l'acquisition d'une langue, maternelle ou étrangére, il convient d'abord de la situer dans cet ensemble: l'acquisition est définie comme l'accès progressif au "savoir faire" dans une langue maternelle ou étrangère. Elle est tributaire de l'imprégnation, de l'apprentissage et de l'enseignement.

- L'imprègnation: les sollicitations extérieures impressionnent (imprègnent) le sujet en fonction de son pouvoir de réceptivité et de la richesse de son environnement. Organisation non consciente l'imprégnation est primordiale. C'est pourquoi de nouvelles approches méthodologiques ont pour but de lui donner une extension maximale.

Or quand un jeune enfant apprend sa langue maternelle, sa grammaire passe nécessairement par l'imprégnation. Dire qu'un individu comprend et s'exprime à l'aide d'une grammaire non-consciente, qui lui permet de construire son propre systéme de la langue, c'est établir une relation entre imprégnation et grammaire, quelles que soient les autres considérations, innéïstes, constructivistes, empiriques, dans ce domaine.

De meme l'acquisition d'une langue étrangère passe également et nécessairement par l'imprégnation, bain sonore, lecture silencieuse, récitation de poèmes par exemple. Ces activités permettent l'intériorisation et l'application de la grammaire.

- L'apprentissage: il suppose de la part de l'individu, un traitement volontaire des données qu'il rencontre; l'apprentissage passe nécessairement par un effort, conscient ou non. Contrairement à l'imprégnation, l'apprentissage est [illegible]traignant, mais il est fait des contraintes qu'on s'impose à soi-meme pour comprendre et retenir un objet d'étude. Ainsi l'acquisition de la morphologie d'une langue étrangère ne peut se faire qu'à l'aide de répétitions, plus ou moins attrayantes, espacées, organisées, qui sont avant tout du domaine de l'apprentissage. *L'imprégnation ne suffit pas.*

- L'enseignement: C'est l'aide explicite qu'apporte un intermédiaire pour favoriser imprégnation et apprentissage. Contrairement à bien des usages, la contrainte n'a pas à se situer au niveau de l'enseignement mais à celui de l'apprentissage. En face de l'imprégnation qui est spontanée et de l'apprentissage qui est "auto-contraignant", l'enseignement suggère, ou devrait suggérer, proposer les éléments favorables à l'acquisition mais non les imposer. Enseigner c'est d'abord motiver.

Ainsi dans le domaine méthodologique l'enseignement aurait pur but d'aider le sujet à apprendre comment apprendre, à fixer ses limites optimales (ni trop ni trop peu d'éléments à retenir dans un temps donné), à répartir son effort pour obtenir l'effet recherché (activités massées ou réparties) à reconnaitre l'efficacité des activités ludiques, à déterminer ses propres objectifs... .

Dans le domaine grammatical l'enseignant fournira les outils qui permettront d'observer, de différencier, de classer. Il répondra à la curiosité des élèves, en les amenant à "conceptualiser", c'est-à-dire à justifier d'une facon satisfaisante pour eux les causes d'un phénomène linguistique, au moins quand ils désirent les connaitre. Il les aidera à paraphraser, c'est-à-dire à trouver des équivalences et des différences, en partant de leurs propres productions. Il permettra à l'élève de se corriger en analysant ses erreurs constantes et d'une certaine manière en les justifiant (pédagogie de la faute).

2 GRAMMAIRE ET ACTIVITES D'APPRENTISSAGE (C.R.O.P.)

Tout apprentissage passe nécessairement par ces quatre activités: Comprendre. Répéter. Organiser. Produire.

- Comprendre, c'est sélectionner des informations en fonction de données qu'on connair déjà et de donnees nouvelles, c'est les relier et les faire siennes. Une telle définition s'applique strictement à l'acquisition de la grammaire. Notons toutefois que la compréhension peut-etre partielle, soit par manque de données, soit par impossibilité, provisoire ou définitive, de les assimiler. Ainsi en est-il de la grammaire approximative de celui qui est en train d'apprendre une langue étrangère. Nous verrons plus loin le rapport entre compréhension et organisation puisque comprendre c'est organiser.

- Répéter: Naguère quand on parlait de répétitions, on pensait immédiatement à la forme privilégieée que sont les exercices structuraux de la grammaire implicite. Meme si de tels procédés n'ont plus aujourd'hui autant de crédit, on ne saurait se passer de répétitions, par exemple pour mémoriser les formes verbales. Nous l'avons déjà signalé mais nous insistons sur ce point: l'apprentissage sans répétition n'est qu'une illusion.

Mais on peut s'efforcer de répéter "autrement". La répétition, naturelle et variée peut n'etre qu'une des composantes de l'apprentissage grammatical. Ainsi la répétition est dans la communication, à la fois par la fréquence et par la redondance. Tout dicours comporte nécessairement des verbes, des articles, des prépositions, etc. ... A ce niveau le hasard n'intervient pas dans la langue. On utilisera aussi les textes qui comportent une rhétorique de la répétition (comptines, poémes, contes, etc. ...) et des textes quelconques (recettes de cuisines, modes d'emploi, petites annonces, enquetes, faits divers...). D'autre part, dans la pratique de la classe, les répétitions ne seront pas uniformes mais caractérisées par:

* la variété des contextes et des situations où on les exerce.

* l'espacement dans le temps

* une quantitité limitée à chaque intervention

* l'aménagement de moments de silence qui, en suivant la répétition, favorisent la mémorisation

* le passage à l'expression spontanée immédiatement après un exercice répétitif ou mieux, la mise en "sandwich" d'une activité répétitive entre deux (courtes) conversations.

De plus l'on donnera une place privilégiée à:

* la consultation de modèles ou exemples écrits qui restent à la disposition des élèves et auxquels ils peuvent se référer quand ils le désirent.

* la fabrication par les élèves (et non la simple utilisation) des séquences répétitives.

* leur observation, non pour en "nommer" les éléments mais pour réfléchir sur leurs relations.

C'est que dans l'apprentissage d'une langue, la mémorisation n'est pas régulièrement proportionelle à la somme des répétitions. Tout se passe comme s'il y avait, pour chaque individu et pour chaque tache, une répétition privilégiée oú intervient un enclenchement entre l'objet à mémoriser et les disponibilités de la mémoire. Cet enclenchement est favorisé par la variété des exercices et rendu improbable par la saturation.

- Produire: Meme si les facteurs d'acquisition sont (encore) mal connus dans leur diversité, nous en trouvons des indices dans les productions de l'élève. Ainsi nous pouvons souligner ses réussites, sélectionner les points sur lesquels il est en mesure de progresser, rendre compte de ses manques de manière à les transformer en facteurs de progrès. C'est dire que l'évaluation est un élément de base de l'enseignement. Seules ses productions nous indiquent comment l'élève organise la langue et nous permettent d'influencer l'apprentissage.

Par production nous entendons aussi bien le simple réemploi, qui comporte habituellement des variantes, en fonction de l'acquis de l'élève par rapport au modèle qui lui est propos&eae., que ses tentatives pour communiquer dans des situations qui l'intéressent et dans lesquelles il se libère des modèles en donnant libre cours à sa faculté de produire, c'est-à-dire en se "debrouillant" avec ce qu'il sait.

- Organiser: d'une part, comprendre en premier lieu, répéter, produire, sont le résultat du fait d'organiser. D'autre part, l'organisation est une activité en elle - meme consciente ou non, de systématisation.

Organiser, dans les activités d'acquisition d'une langue, c'est, pour l'individu, utiliser les instruments vivants que sont les organes des sens et les facultés ou organes mentaux, pour construire, à son usage et par paliers, le système qui est (dans) la langue, constructions provisoires que l'élève accommode et rééquilibre pour arriver petit à petit à la langue normée. Les indices de cette organisation sont apparents, en pariculier au niveau des erreurs commises par l'élève. Il ne s'agit pas alors de rechercher des causes hypothétiques d'erreurs mais de rendre compte, de facon synthétique, d'un certain nombre de phénomènes pour que l'élève les comprenne et s'en serve dans sa progression. Nous pensons en particulier à:

* l'indifférenciation primaire (faire de ils ont, ils sont, ils vont, ils font une "archiforme"). Notons que la langue fonctionne ici avec une médiocre différenciation.

* le besoin de régularité quand il aboutit à l'indifférenciation construite (par example la sur-généralisation d'une construciton * Je n'ai vu rien, suivant à tort l'ordre canonique ou d'une forme: * allongir comme agrandir, raccourcir et la plupart des verbes dérivés d'adjectifs.)

* le décumul (* ceux que ca ne les intéresse pas n'ont qu'a s'en aller (que, les) et les redondances excessives du discours.

* la suffisance des moyens d'expression (suppression de l'article, des prépositions ... avec comme commentaire de certains élèves: "De toute facon, on se comprend").

Une grammaire centrée sur l'élève comprendrait, après un premier apprentissage, ces tetes de chapitre d'autant que ces tendances de l'apprentissage se retrouvent de facon analogique dans la langue (normée).

3 COMMUNICATION ET GRAMMAIRE:

Nous admettons, comme donnée immédiate, que communiquer c'est avoir besoin et/ou envie de dire quelque chose à quelqu'un pour qu'il réponde ou réagisse, en avoir les moyens, linguistiques comme extralinguistiques, et le faire.

Mais dire quoi?

* la communication de survie? Pour se saluer, s'orienter, se sustenter, se loger, se soigner. Soit, il y a sans doute encore des progrès à faire dans ce sens pour que les opuscules qu'on achète dans les aérogares soient satisfaisants et il y a beaucoup à faire pour les gens qui ne fréquentent pas les aéroports. Mais ce "dire" là est tout de meme un peu court...

* la communication "sociale". Elle a deux poles: celui qui permet les relations grégaires et commercantes, celui qui donne une image valorisante de l'élocuteur. Ce dernier peut etre "aise" et etre pris, s'il commet certaines fautes et si son apparence ne les dément pas, pour un "quelcon-

que" travailleur immigré Dura lex sed lex. La communication "sociale" a donc deux niveaux trés différents.

* la comunication professionnelle, entre spécialistes, (de transport, d'informatique, ou de linguistique par exemple). Les spécialistes, de prime abord, dans leurs spécialités ont un "terrain d'entente". Peu de problèmes pour lire, mais comment "vivre" avec un strict langage de spécialiste?

* la communication affective, intellectuelle, esthétique; au niveau scolaire c'est un choix et une nécessité humanistes. A ce niveau la communication a peu de limites.

Avec quels outils ou moyens?

Autrement dit quand considére-t-on qu'une langue de communication remplit sa fonction? quand elle correspond à la norme officielle, celle de l'académie, de l'école ... ? à la norme de la collectivité qui est, en France, différente de la première? quand elle permet de se faire comprendre et de comprendre? Dans la pratique, il semble bien que, pour l'anglais, la dernière solution se soit imposée et qu'il n'en soit pas encore ainsi pour le francais ... D'autre part communiquer c'est évidemment, beaucoup plus qu' utiliser une grammaire. La communication peut rester en decà de la correction grammaticale pourvue qu'elle permette le dialogue des cultures.

Dans la pratique scolaire, il n'y a guère, pour le moment, de grammaire de la communication. On continue ainsi à apprendre les formes indépendamment du sens, à présenter ces dernières de facon différenciée meme quand elles ne le sont pas (Par exemple quelle est la marque du genre des déterminants au pluriel?) En plus de ces deux points et de ce que nous avons mentionné sous la rubrique "organiser" nous retenons:

* le métalangage de la communication qui a une très grande aussi importance non seulement dans le domaine scolaire mais aussi dans la pratique courante entre locuteurs de meme langue presqu'autant qu'entre locuteurs de langues différentes. Il ne faudrait pas se contenter dans ce domaine de quelques expressions (Que signifie ... Comment dit-on x en francais?). Le métalangage de la communication comprend aussi bien les moyens de l'élucidation que ceux de l'appréciaton.

* le registre, compris comme l'adéquation des moyens d'expression à une situation et au statut des interlocuteurs. On voit qu'il ne suffit pas de parler de niveaux, soutenu, neutre ou familier. De plus les demandes et réponses peuvent etre directes ou allusives, atténuées ou non (Ne fume pas dans ma voiture; tu me ferais bien plaisir si tu ne fumais pas; avec mon coeur, je ne supporte guére l'odeur du tabac; il fait bon respirer ...)

* les V.L.R. ou variétés langagiéres réduites. Si, communiquer dans une langue étrangère c'est bien, en particulier, dire ce qu'on a envie de dire, il est clair qu'en cours d'apprentissage on n'a pas les moyens normatifs correspondant à ce qu'on veut dire. Il faut donc que l'élève sache qu'il a droit, provisoirement, à l'erreur, qu'il peut se tromper au niveau des prépositions, des déterminants, des formes verbales, de l'ordre des mots, et que, petit à petit son discours sera repris pour atteindre la forme correcte. Il aura du reste lui meme à faire des exerci-

ces ou on lui présentera des énoncés qui permettent la communication mais qui sont en V.L.R. et qu'il devra transformer en V.L.N. (variétés langagières normées). Ne fait-on pas la meme chose dans les exercices à trous? à la différence toutefois, mais elle est essentielle, que ceux-ci n'ont pas de valeur communicative.

* la langue maternelle. L'apprentissage de la langue maternelle et d'une langue étrangère se renforcent nécessairement l'un l'autre. Pour que ce renforcement soit une facilitation et non un obstacle, l'enseignement doit en particulier aider les élèves à établir les rapports graphie-phonie et leur valeur relative d'une langue à l'autre et à l'intérieur de chacune, les différences éventuelles entre langue parlée et langue écrite, la comparaison du sens au niveau des déterminants, des temps et de l'aspect au moins ... Ici, sans comparatisme, point de salut.

Ces quelques pistes ne donnent pas la part trop belle à la grammaire reflexive, mais force est de constater que cette dernière est dans bien des cas un raccourci pour apprendre, et dans certains le seul moyen d'arriver au bon usage et à la communication dans le respect de la norme. Reste que, dans la practique, c'est la communication en decà de la norme, qui est la plus fréquente en langue étrangère, qu'elle a elle-meme sa grammaire et ses régularités, dont l'élève doit prendre conscience, soit pour les utiliser, soit pour les dépasser.

INTERNALIZING SYNTACTIC RULES BY MEANS OF ICONIC MEDIATION

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Since the introduction of language laboratories in foreign language teaching the devising of suitable, efficient and sensible exercises has always proved problematic. The majority of courses introduced merely imitative exercises, which caused fatigue and boredom. The pattern-drill approach demands a cognitive effort when the first sentence has to be adapted to the model, but becomes imitative drill for the remaining sentences in the series. At the end of the sixties these structuralist approaches disappeared from the F-L teaching scene, very often causing the disappearance or the disuse of language-laboratories as well. Chomsky's definition of language as "rule governed creativity", Searle's investigation of "Speech Acts" and Del Hymes's craving for "communicative competence" indisputably gained a much stronger impact on language teaching in the early seventies than structuralism ever had in the fifties and sixties. The language methodologists welcomed the new linguistic, psychological and philosophical insights with great enthusiasm. Very soon we had radically to admit that the notional-functional syllabus was the valuable solution, that authentic materials were indispensable and that there was no distinction between F-L learning and mothertongue acquisition. Grammar teaching was reduced to occasional "monitoring"; the "innate heuristics" of the human being would take care of the fulfilment: mastery of a foreign language.

Although these creative innovations have certainly influenced language teaching at university level, at teacher training colleges and translator and interpreter institutes, a critical attitude towards these extremist theories and strategies has arisen. Future translators, interpreters, teachers of English as a F-L cannot merely rely on a functional-notional syllabus without grammatical consistency or on an intuitive approach to F-L by simply reading authentic materials, playing language games, performing role-playing etc. The study of grammar should result in a systematic cognitive training, adapted to the adult age of the students.

The Grammicon Course is the result of both theoretical investigation and practical experiments in the Department of Applied Linguistics at the K.U. Leuven. We had in mind the construction of exercises for use in the language laboratory, which would provide sufficient problem-solving activity to satisfy the motivation of the students, to keep their concentration alive in exercises lasting about fifty minutes, and the final objective of which would be the internalization of English grammar rules. We shall briefly summarize the theoretical issues first.

As doing an exercise is always deductive, i.e. applying principles (in our case so called grammar rules), our memory wants something that assists the right application of the rules. Such an intermediate strategy is called *mediation* by the psychologists of learning. Language methodologists have often believed that there is a smooth transfer from a verbally formulated rule towards its application in an exercise. This is rarely the case; what has been understood in a theoretical course cannot mediate in its verbal way, because recalling the verbal formulation before applying the rule is too slow a procedure.

Moreover, psychologists have compared verbal to visual mediation and have found in their experiments that even with minimal word-pairs memory is better served with visual than with verbal mediation (Paivio 1971). A fortiori this should lead to the preference of visual mediators for larger units of language than word-pairs, e.g. for English syntactic structures. The science of learning psychology only makes a plea for visual mediation; it does not, however, specify the kind of visualization that should be chosen. The subjects of the experiments in learning psychology could very easily draw pictures for words denoting concrete objects, but they had difficulties in finding pictures for mediation between abstract notions. As all language rules should be called abstract in a certain sense, we thought it would be unwise to let our students invent the mediators themselves, as was being done in psychological experiments with word-pairs. We have developed an iconic mediation system which we propose, explain and apply in this course.

It was not learning psychology that could help us find the best suited visual mediation, but the science of *semiotics*. It taught us the different visual signs human beings may use as mediating elements for the memory (Sebeok 1973)[1]. Thus we use *indexes* (e.g. numbers of chapters, paragraphs), or *symbols* (e.g. in grammar: Pass for passive, Pr for present, NP for noun phrase, VP for verb phrase etc.). Some years ago we contented ourselves with symbols for grammatical mediation. But the snag with symbols is that they are completely arbitrary, i.e. we should agree upon their meaning, without the cooperation of the symbol itself, as it does not express by itself the meaning it ought to convey. We have now chosen *icons* instead. An icon is a sign that should also be agreed upon, but which in itself, by its iconic representation, conveys the meaning it expresses; being a simulation of the grammatical rule underlying it.

Another advantage of the icon, or simulating visual mediator, can be derived from the theoretical basis of the sign-language for the deaf-mute: the iconic signs are the only mediators that can allow deaf-mute conversants to see and understand the simulated "talking" simultaneously (Tervoort 1973)[2]. Mediators that have to be decoded verbally (such as symbols, names etc.) require a certain lapse of time between the sign-mediation and the response.

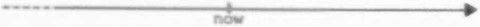
This short theoretical background to the proposed methodology has shown that language methodology has to rely on multi-disciplinary transpositions from learning psychology, semiotics, sign-language for the deaf-mute and linguistics.

The grammatical contents of this one-year course centres on the verb in English: time and its aspects (durative, factive, progressive, perfective and generalizing) resulting in tenses, active and passive moods and all modalities. We have also inserted chapters on word order, place of adverbs, relatives and tags (by means of dramatic language material).

Grammatical iconicity is mainly used for mediation in the chapters on the English verb. For the other chapters iconicity is only used occasionally (cf. tags).

The grammatical icons are gradually presented, explained and internalized in the course. In this introduction we limit ourselves to the basic elements in order to stress the simplicity of the system. There are only two basic iconic representations: the first deals with time and its aspects; the second deals with modality in general.

A) Time is represented iconically as an infinite time-line, on which the present moment is indicated by means of a cross-line;



past and future are imagined to the left and the right of the present moment respectively. The limited duration in which most actions, events and states are situated is represented by a small circle ○ , resulting in

⦶ for a present limited time period

○| for a past limited time period

|○ for a future limited time period.

The aspects related to the English tense system each find their expression in the following iconic representations

• a dot represents the factive aspect

e.g. ⊙ for the simple present

— a horizontal line represents the progressive aspect

e.g. ⊕ for the present progressive

○| the circle touching the cross-line indicating a moment in time represents the perfective aspect

e.g. ⊙| for the present perfect simple

◠ a half circle replacing the full circle represents the partial loss of the duration which may be found in some statements

e.g. ◠| in the simple present

total absence of the small circle represents the total absence of duration in some statements

e.g. ┼ in the simple present

All the other signs are derived from these basic icons so that the unity of the system is preserved.

B) Modality is basically interpreted as the vision of the speaker or the listener on the reality outside of himself.
Volition is one possible expression of modality. The speaker, the listener or the grammatical subject of the sentence are the three possible sources of a volition, they are represented iconically by means of

👄 a mouth for the speaker

👂 an ear for the listener

🧍 a humanoid creature for the subject

For the model meanings of ability, possibility, permission, obligation and logical necessity the basic icon has been borrowed from traffic:

(the direction to be taken is a must);

by means of abstraction and deduction one can easily adapt this icon to uses in English verbal modality.

⛔ for MUST in several senses (an arrow in blue/black)

⊖ for a less strong obligation (shaded)

○ for CAN or MAY (colourless)

This course is meant as a revision of English grammar for adults at advanced level. It can be used in the language laboratory or at home with a "didactic" tape-recorder. It is not a theoretical course. In most colleges a theoretical grammar course will be taught anyway. We assume that such a course (or personal theoretical grammar study) has been provided before the exercises can start. Even then we should encourage the students to prepare these sessions individually at home, marking the difficulties for the problem solving exercises.

All the verb forms have been reduced to their infinitive forms and they should be transformed into their grammatical finite forms. It should be stressed that problem solving should be performed in two directions:

1. When we assume that the icon is indispensable for the production of the right finite form, then it is presented in the exercise-text; in this case the cognitive activity consists in a correct interpretation of the icon.

2. When we assume that the icon is not required, because the context of the exercise contains enough cues for a correct solution, then the student may be asked to provide the missing icon and justify his choice.

At home the students should do the exercise orally or silently, they should not fill in the verbal forms in the exercise-texts because then the exercises lose their cognitive value in practising. They can consult the keys immediately afterwards. When mistakes have been made, they should find out their difficulties and the reason why they were wrong. Also pronunciation doubts must be checked and verified.

FOOTNOTES

(1) Semiotics is a basic science which will in the near future become an integrated part of language methodology.

Definitions of the signs we use (Sebeok, 1976)

SYMBOL: there is a conventional link between signifier and its denotata, and an intensional class for its designation

INDEX: the signifier is contiguous with its signified

ICON: there is a topological similarity between the signifier and its denotata (images, diagrams, graphs and metaphors)

SIGNAL: the sign taken mechanically or conventionally triggers some ACTION on the part of the receiver (imperative)

(2) Advantages and disadvantages of visual and acoustic signs

Visual signs:	Acoustic sign:
1. Production and processing can be stimultaneous	1. Successive processing cannot be avoided
2. Relative arbitrariness	2. Almost complete arbitrariness of words
3. Identity between speaker and sign.	3. Speech can be represented detached from speaker

(cf. Tervoort, 1973)

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Sample of an exercise and matching key

1. At the wedding rehearsal the vicar ⊙| (to tell) us he |⊙ (to write) to the Bishop and (to tell) him that he † (to have) two non-active christians in the parish. He (to say) that if he ⊛| |⊙ (to tell) to marry us he (to resign). "Margaret ⊛| (terribly to upset)," (to add) Barry. "I (to go) back and (to tell) the vicar that we † (⊛to marry) in another church. There (to be) nothing else I |(to do)." / Jarvis (to say): "The decision to go elsewhere ⊙| (to be) theirs. But I ⊙|(to tell) them that in a certain set of circumstances I (to write) to the Bishop and if he † |⊖◌ (to tell) me to marry them I (to consider) resigning."

1. told, would write, |⊙ (would) tell, had, ⊙| said, were told, would resign, was terribly upset, ⊙| added, ⊙| went, ⊙| told, would be married, ⊙|was, could do, ⊙| said, was, did tell, |⊙ would write, told, would have to consider

A sample of the icons made up for the English tense system

Possible combinations:

Modality:	Time:				
Reality	Present	+	Active	Simple (factual)	Non-perfective
Possibility	Past	-			
Doubt	Future	?	Passive	Expanded (progressive)	Perfective

A combination of these elements results in a tense-form:

e.g. reality + past + active + expanded + non-perfective =
Past Progressive (active)

reality + present + passive + simple + perfective =
Present Perfect Simple (passive)

Survey of the TENSE-forms + MEDIATORS and their semantic contents:

1. Present tense

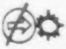
	Aspect of general time simple present	*True authority comes from strength.*
	Generalization of an action simple present	*I speak English.* *My friends live in London.*
	Non-action verbs of inert perception or cognition simple present	*I think he is mad.* *I don't understand you.*
	States, events and actions in limited time simple present	*We live in Leuven at present.*
	Habitual actions, iteration expressed simple present	*I go to the theatre every week.*
	Iteration presupposed simple present	*I buy my shirts at Harrod's.*
	Instantaneous actions simple present	*I name this ship Victoria.*
	Series of instantaneous actions simple present	*Smith kicks the ball - and scores!*

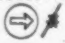
	Actor is unknown passive simple present	*A variety of things is sold on the market.*
	Imaginary present simple present	*(stage directions in plays)* *She suddenly hears something in the passage outside and opens and peeps through the hall door for a moment. Then she closes the hall door and turns to MAX.*
	Historic present simple present	*Matthew takes two equivalent summaries and abbreviates them.*
	Emphasis simple present	*We do go home in time.*
	Future meaning with adverbial simple present	*The train leaves at 10 p.m.*
	Future meaning in subclauses simple present	*This increase will continue, as the new colleges come to completion.*
	Action going on NOW present progressive	*I'm talking. Just listen.*
	Action going on NOW, actor unknown present progressive passive	*Dinner is being served now.*
	Persistent activity present progressive	*She's always teasing me!*
	Planned future present progressive	*We're visiting our aunt tomorrow.*

2. Present perfect tense

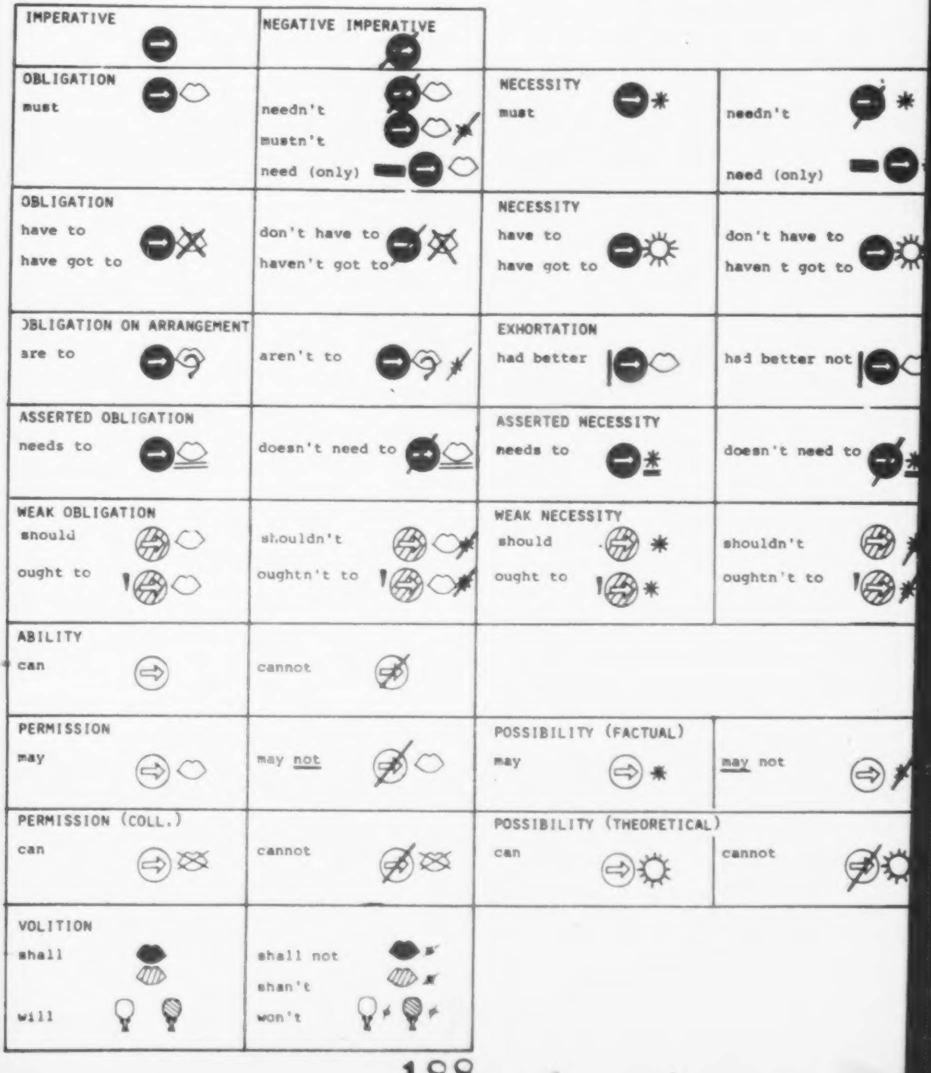
	Near past present perfect simple	*I've just asked him.*
	Indefinite past pres. perfect simple	*There have been suggestions recently of a reconciliation.*
	Temporary situation leading up to present pres. perfect simple	*Who's eaten my sweets? (all gone)*
	State up to present pres. perfect simple	*My brother has always lived next door.*
	Habit up to present actor unknown pres. perfect simple passive	*The name of Brook has been for scores of years associated with Huddersfield.*

NEGATION

EXTERNAL NEGATION : NEGATION OF THE MODALITY ITSELF; E.G. CANNOT  (NO POSSIBILITY)

INTERNAL NEGATION : NEGATION OF THE ACTION RULED BY MODALITY; E.G. MAY NOT ... = 

(POSSIBILITY OF NOT-HAPPENING)



IMPERATIVE	NEGATIVE IMPERATIVE		
OBLIGATION must	needn't mustn't need (only)	NECESSITY must	needn't need (only)
OBLIGATION have to have got to	don't have to haven't got to	NECESSITY have to have got to	don't have to haven t got to
BLIGATION ON ARRANGEMENT are to	aren't to	EXHORTATION had better	had better not
ASSERTED OBLIGATION needs to	doesn't need to	ASSERTED NECESSITY needs to	doesn't need to
WEAK OBLIGATION should ought to	shouldn't oughtn't to	WEAK NECESSITY should ought to	shouldn't oughtn't to
ABILITY can	cannot		
PERMISSION may	may not	POSSIBILITY (FACTUAL) may	may not
PERMISSION (COLL.) can	cannot	POSSIBILITY (THEORETICAL) can	cannot
VOLITION shall will	shall not shan't won't		

NEGATION (EXAMPLES)

I'm alright, thank you. Leave me alone, go home!	Please don't make it difficult for me!		
You must come and visit us some time.	The money question needn't hinder you. You mustn't ask for that sort of thing. I don't think we need detain you any further, sir.	I know that all must die.	That needn't cause us undue anxiety. All she need do is go to an agent.
Why do have to do what the town clerk says?	I don't have to give an account of myself to you.	I have to cry like a baby before he'll take me up to the toilet.	It doesn't have to be story, just anything.
You are to die, sergeant. That's an order.	I wasn't to know that at the time.	Tony had better get rid of him.	Well, it had better not take long.
He said I needed to get out more, get a rest.	You don't any longer need to poke your goddam nose into my affairs.	You don't think I need to see a specialist.	You don't need to be ashamed of your past.
You should be ashamed, a man in your situation! You really ought to look after your things more carefully.	You shouldn't speak against Arthur like that. Persons of certain descriptions oughtn't to marry.	Our guests should be home by now. In an hour and a half I ought to be able to find out something about him.	This plant should not be difficult to keep. There oughtn't to be any difficulties.
I can smell them allright..................	.but I can feel them.		
You may rest assured that I shall continue to fight them.	The death sentence may not be carried out on a pregnant woman.	This may	.or may not be a sufficient answer.
You're very keen on telling us what we can ...	.and can't do, aren't you, Mr. Drake?	The mean of the data can then be found.	You can't deny the facts, can you, doctor?
Now, Nancy, you can and you shall tell me. I'll give you 10 shillings a day for your inconvenience. He'll do anything to draw attention to himself.	"No," she said, "you shall not die." I shan't be long. I won't say anything.		

APPRENTISSAGE DE L'ORTHOGRAPHE DU FRANÇAIS LANGUE ETRANGERE PAR DES ENFANTS DE MIGRANTS

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La présente communication rend compte d'une recherche effectuée à Genève où nous sommes confrontés au problème de l'insertion des familles de migrants et, en particulier, de l'intégration scolaire et professionnelle des adolescents récemment immigrés. Cette étude a fait l'objet, par ailleurs d'une récente publication (Rey-von Allmen 1982).
Il peut paraître surprenant de s'intéresser à l'apprentissage de l'orthographe, qui représente un écueil particulièrement difficile à surmonter pour des adolescents récemment immigrés, enfants de travailleurs migrants. Mais la maîtrise de l'orthographe française est déterminante dans la carrière scolaire et professionnelle. Car l'orthographe a un statut institutionnel symbolique. Elle joue un rôle important dans la conscience normative des francophones et confère un pouvoir (au sens de Bourdieu) à ceux qui le maîtrisent. Dans cette mesure même, elle intervient dans l'évaluation des connaissances et des comportements des non francophones comme un critère d'intelligence, un indice d'acculturation. En ce sens, elle est un phénomène non seulement sociologique, mais culturel. Il faut noter que l'orthographe n'est pas tout l'écrit. Mais son statut symbolique en occulte ou en bloque souvent les autres composantes. Il résulte de ces faits sociaux que l'apprentissage de l'orthographe est un outil d'intégration et un moyen, pour les élèves, d'augmenter leurs chances éducatives.
Par ailleurs, l'apprentissage du code graphique constitue bien plus que l'apprentissage d'un savoir-faire. De par la nature même de ce code, il participe à la mise en place d'une compétence à l'abstraction et au symbolique, compétence qui joue un rôle de plus en plus important dans notre société - Ce qui ne signifie pas que les formes standard de l'orthographe française aient une quelconque "vertu intellectuelle" et qu'on ne puisse pas souhaiter une réforme de l'orthographe ou, avec Blanche-Benvéniste par example, la suppression de la norme ou la liberté pour le scripteur de choisir entre plusieurs formes selon sa fantaisie (cf. Blanche-Benveniste 1978). Dans la situation actuelle cependant, pour les raisons que nous venons d'évoquer, l'orthographe reste un besoin (au sens de Richterich), que doit prendre en compte l'enseignement.

Pourquoi nous sommes-nous intéressée au processus d'apprentissage du code graphique? Tout nous portait à croire que les difficultés des enfants des travailleurs migrants n'étaient pas dues à un manque d'aptitudes intellectuelles. L'enseignement de l'orthographe posait néanmoins des problèmes non résolus. Nous pensions qu'une meilleure connaissance de la manière dont ces élèves appréhendaient cet enseignement pourrait peut-être apporter quelques éclaircissements méthodologiques.

Il semble en effect que les connaissances psycholinguistiques actuelles, relatives au processus d'apprentissage des langues, au rôle des erreurs dans l'apprentissage, n'ont guère pénétré le domaine de l'enseignement de l'orthographe. On pense communément que l'orthographe est arbitraire, que par conséquent elle ne s'enseigne pas, que l'aptitude à écrire correctement est innée, ou qu'il suffit d'apprendre et de se conformer à une norme pour savoir. Curieusement, linguistes et pédagogues se réfèrent encore, s'agissant d'apprentissage de l'orthographe, à un schéma béhavioriste, alors que dans les autres domaines de l'apprentissage linguistique, on souligne l'importance de modèles "cognitivistes" ou d'interaction sociale. Sans doute le rejet de l'orthographe constitue-t-il une réaction justifiée à son emprise sociale et scolaire dévorante. Mais il ne permet pas de la remettre à sa place. Car d'explicite qu'elle etait, la norme est devenue implicite et poursuit son action discriminatoire à couvert.

Notre population de référence a été celle de deux classes d'accueil expérimentales organisées avec le concours du Conseil de l'Europe au Cycle d'orientation de l'enseignement secondaire de Genève, entre 1974 et 1976. Elles regroupaient des élèves espagnols et italiens, àges de 13 à 15 ans, mal scolarisés et rencontrant des difficultés scolaires. Nous avons tenté, pour commencer, de rassembler les éléments disponibles relatifs à leur situation sociale et d'en dégager les dimensions les plus significatives, de situer leurs performances scolaires par rapport aux attentes de l'école genevoise et de présenter le milieu scolaire dans lequel (entre autres) s'effectuent les interactions et les apprentissages qui nous intéressent.

Les tests pédagogiques et psychopédagogiques que nous leur avons fait passer mettent en évidence qu'en dépit de lacunes et de difficultés manifestes, qu'en dépit d'hétérogénéité dans les conduites et les résultats, ces adolescents ont des aptitudes réelles. Ils ne sont comparables ni à des élèves plus jeunes normalement scolarisés, ni à des élèves peu doués. Ils manifestent par ailleurs une activité et des capacités cognitives et métalinguistiques effectives.

Nous n'avons évidemment pas d'accès direct au processus d'apprentissage de l'orthographe de ces élèves. Méthodologiquement, nous nous sommes servie de l'analyse longitudinale des erreurs, tirées d'un corpus de productions d'élèves recueillies par l'intermédiare de tests de dictée et de rédaction, présentés plusieurs fois au cours de la première année d'apprentissage de français, parfois également au cours des deuxième et troisième années.

Dans un premier temps, nous avons essayé de dépasser l'approche normative réductionniste qui est trop souvent, en orthographe, celle des enseignants et qui consiste simplement à sanctionner l'erreur (c'est juste ou faux), pour tenter de décrire les erreurs à partir du système orthographique. Nous avons alors constaté que si, en principe, le système orthographique est donné au départ (du point de vue du linguiste et de l'enseignant), il est en fait très mal connu: ce que l'on connait plutôt, c'est la norme qu'il véhicule.

L'observation des erreurs des élèves nous a obligée à examiner de plus près son fonctionnement. La façon qu'avaient les élèves de l'appréhender a éclairé pour nous plusieurs de ses articulations. Ainsi, c'est à partir d'une confrontation entre hypothèses des linguistes et hypothèses des apprenants (telles que nous les interprétions) que nous avons retenu une description spécifique du fonctionnement du système

graphique du français, compte tenu de celles proposées actuellement, notamment de celle de Catach et de ses collaborateurs (cf. Catach *et al.* 1980). Cette démarche nous a permis de dégager les différentes composantes d'une maitrise linguistique du code graphique: les composantes générales, liées à la nature de l'écrit par rapport à l'oral, comme les composantes spécifiques, liées aux relations existant entre première et deuxième articulation d'une part, entre identification et transcription d'autre part. C'est à cette description (cf Rey-von Allmen 1982) que nous avons référé notre analyse typologique des erreurs.
Les brèches que nous avons faites dans l'analyse éthiologique nous ont montré que les erreurs constituaient pour ces élèves, à partir de leur expérience linguistique et orthographique, en langue d'origine comme en français, des tentatives logiques d'approcher le système orhographique et en reflétaient les points chauds.

Dans un deuxième temps, par le moyen d'une étude longitudinale des erreurs, nous avons mis en évidence les processus d'apprentissage des élèves, en nous appuyant sur le schéma proposé par Frauenfelder et Porquier (1979), que nous simplifions ici en: "entrée" - "saisie" - "intégration" - "sortie".
Ce qui frappe avant tout, c'est l'importance de l'activité métalinguistique de ces élèves. Si l'orthographe française est fondamentalement métalinguistique dans la mesure où elle exige une réflexion sur la langue, ses constituants et son fonctionnement, les efforts des élèves pour découvrir ces relations sont constants. On peut reconnaître dans leurs démarches les mêmes opérations cognitives que celles qui interviennent dans d'autres domaines de l'apprentissage linguistique. On constate par ailleurs que l'ensemble de leur expérience linguistique, langagière, sociale et affective est mobilisée dans cet apprentissage.
Compte tenu du fonctionnement de l'orthographe et de nos observations relatives aux processus d'apprentissage des élèves, nous avons fait l'hypothèse qu'il existe un sens de la progression dans la maitrise des composantes du code graphique et nous avons proposé un schéma (du point de vue linguistique), qu'il s'agit bien sûr toujours de croiser avec les aspects psycholinguistiques mentionnés tout à l'heure. La trajectoire serait la suivante:

- progression dans la maitrise des composantes générales (ou prélables) du code graphique (transcription d'un code auditif en un code visuel; transcription de la linéarité temporelle dans l'espace, selon un axe conventionnel gauche/droite, en haut/en bas; sélectoin parmi les informations transmises par la communication orale des composantes spécifiquement linguistiques qui font l'objet d'un transcodage; connaissance des signes graphiques dans leurs valeurs distinctives, cf. Martins-Baltar *et al.* 1979),

- progression dans la maitrise de la composante morphologique du code graphique (repérage des morphémes, libres ou liés, découpage et délimitation de la chaine d'une part, identification et choix des morphémes d'autre part),

- progression dans la maitrise des composantes phonético-phonologique (repérage et identification des phonèmes de la chaine) et phonogrammique (règles de correspondance graphie-son, agencement des lettres constituant les graphèmes composés et règles de position, choix des variantes appropriées),

- progression dans la maitrise de la composante morphogrammique (choix des graphèmes qui ont pour fonction de suggérer une mise en relation syntaxique ou lexicale, comme des marques distinctives ou non fonctionelles; pour une définition de ces notions, cf. Catach et al. 1980).

Selon ce schéma, la progression des élèves des classes expérimentales est effective et constante. Mais elle semble se réaliser par l'intermédiaire d'itinéraires individuels diversifiés. On y rencontre dans les parcours d'apprentissage trois mouvements, ou trois types de rapports d'une unité à l'autre, que nous avons appelés, á regret et faute de mieux: rapports de "progression" (au sens étroit), de "régression", et de "stabilisation". Ces mouvements se rencontrent souvent simultanément. Longitudinalement, on constate une grande variabilité des parcours, transversalement, leur non homogénéité.

Au terme de cette étude, la question se posait de la spécificité des comportements observés chez ces adolescents. Nous avons donc effectué une comparaison avec les conduites d'autres élèves. On retrouve chez les adolescents non francophones d'autres origines linguistiques et socio-culturelles, notamment d'élèves issus de la couche sociale supérieure et fortement scolarisés, les mêmes types d'erreurs, la même activité cognitive, le même processus d'apprentissage que chez les enfants de travailleurs migrants mal scolarisés. Les différences se situent seulement au niveau des itinéraires: du rythme de la progression d'une part, de la stabilisation des acquis d'autre part.
Par ailleurs, la comparaison effectuée avec des enfants francophones tend à montrer que les étapes par lesquelles passent les adolescents non francophones correspondent - mais au plan cognitif plutôt que développemental et chronologique - à ceux par lesquels passent les enfants francophones dans leur apprentissage de l'orthographe à l'école primaire.

Pédagogiquement, cette étude confirme que, de méme que celui qui apprend une langue étrangère ne la maîtrise pas tout de suite et s'exprime dans une "interlangue" qui tend à s'en rapprocher, de même l'élève qui apprend l'orthographe française ne peut pas assimiler d'emblée l'ensemble du système, mais le découvre peu à peu à son contact, saisit dans les données ce qui lui fait sens, expérimente des hypothèses toujours plus complexes et cherche à les ajuster progressivement à la norme. Pour l'enseignement, cela signifie qu'il convient de privilégier non pas la simplicité et la présentation progressive de la matière, mais sa signification pour l'apprenant, afin de solliciter son activité heuristique.
Cette approche implique une reconnaisance du rôle éminemment positif de l'erreur dans la dynamique de l'apprentissage. C'est par son intermédiaire que l'apprenant explore le nouveau champ de connaissance qu'il a à intégrer, c'est elle qui permettra la complexification et l'ajustement progressif des hypothèses. Il importe donc de réexaminer et de différencier les modes d'évaluation. La sanction de l'erreur, quant à elle, devrait être maintenue dans les limites les plus strictes de la fonction sociale que l'on accorde à la norme et à la certification. Car, en réalité, la norme orthographique, si elle constitue une référence importante, peut aussi représenter un frein à l'apprentissage du code graphique.

Comment interpréter les problèmes spécifiques relatifs à l'enseignement de l'orthographe française aux enfants de travailleurs migrants? Nous avons constaté que les adolescents migrants dont nous avons observé le comportement sont de "bons apprenants" (au sens de Rubin): curieux, créatifs et privilégiant la communication. Ils manifestent par ailleurs les mèmes aptitudes que d'autres apprenants sur le plan cognitif et métalinguistique. Ils semblent pourtant, par rapport à d'autres adolescents non francophones, se distinguer d'une part par la moindre homogénéité des parcours et une progression moins rapide dans la maîtrise du code graphique, d'autre part par la variabilité de leurs parcours et l'instabilité de leurs acquisitions.

A notre avis, le premier type de difficultés pourrait être lié à l'éventail des instruments heuristiques mis en oeuvre dans les apprentissages antérieurs, qui ne suffisent pas à donner accès à la maitrise de toutes les dimensions du code graphique. Il s'agit alors, au niveau de l'activité cognitive, non seulement de transférer des stratégies d'apprentissage, mais aussi d'en développer de nouvelles. Cette construction prend du temps. L'instabilité des acquis nous paraît quant à elle liée aux conditions d'apprentissage et au rapport de ces adolescents à la langue française, à la norme, à l'école et à la communauté qu'elle représente.

On connaît le caractère symbolique de la langue. Celle-ci constitue un potentiel de significations qui se réalise dans l'interaction à l'intérieur du système social (comme le montre Halliday). Or la migration introduit les enfants de travailleurs migrants dans un nouveau système de significations. L'apprentissage linguistique va de pair avec une acculturation qui affecte leur propre système. Recevant son pouvoir de la fonction sociale (discriminatrice) qui lui à été assignée, la norme orthographique (dans sa dimension prescriptive) oblige l'apprenant à se situer par rapport à la société qui l'a instituée. La reconnaitre, c'est en quelque sorte reconnaître les valeurs de la société dans laquelle elle fonctionne et se soumettre à ses conventions, comme à ses jugements.

De ce fait, se trouvant dans une situation d'insécurité et d'ambivalence par rapport à la communauté d'accueil, à l'école et à la langue française, les adolescents migrants n'appréhendent pas la norme orthographique comme un objet que l'on peut maitriser, mais comme une valeur inaccessible, comme une exigence à double tranchant à laquelle il est impossible de satisfaire. Tout se passe comme si le manque de stabilité dans l'acquisition était une forme d'anomie.

Cette hypothèse nous amène, à un niveau théorique, à proposer un modèle de représentation du processus d'apprentissage qui tienne suffisamment compte de la dimension culturelle de cette dynamique. Comme nous l'avons fait ailleurs à propos de la communication (cf. Rey-von Allmen 1979), il est nécessaire de postuler au niveau de l'apprentissage également, le rôle essentiel de ce que nous avons appelé un *crible culturel*. Si le processus d'apprentissage peut être illustré par les termes de "donnée", "saisie", "intégration", "sortie", il faut préciser qu'à chaque étape du processus intervient ce "crible culturel - qu'il faut comprendre comme un schème interprétatif, un système de représentation du réel, un regard porté sur le monde lié à l'expérience culturelle de l'apprenant, qui dépasse largement le niveau de la "motivation" et des variables affectives.

Le processus d'apprentissage s'inscrit lui-même dans un schéma d'interaction, de communication. C'est dire que dans le cas de l'apprentissage du français par des adolescents migrants, il y a interaction de deux cribles culturels. Il y a celui de l'apprenant, qui interprète les données et réagit, au niveau de la saisie, de l'intégration comme de la sortie, à partir de ses références culturelles et de ce qu'il perçoit de celles de son interlocuteur, et celui de l'enseignant (ou d'un autre intervenant) qui fournit les données organisées en fonction de son propre système de valeurs et interprète la "sortie" à partir de ce même système et de l'interaction qu'il perçoit.

Nous avons montré que l'apprentissage de l'orthographe ne s'effectuait pas isolément. Constater qu'il participe de tout un développement et qu'il est affecté par tout ce qui l'entrave, c'est du même coup définir des priorités. Si une didactique de l'orthographe est nécessaire, pour l'efficacité même de son propos, il faut affirmer qu'elle ne peut être que seconde et qu'elle doit s'articuler sur une méthodologie globale. Si l'école, lieu privilégié d'enseignement, veut devenir lieu privilégié d'apprentissage, elle doit commencer, condition sine qua non, par devenir lieu privilégié de communication (pour un développement de cette dimension méthodologique, cf. notre article "Enfants de migrants, apprentissage et enseignement de l'orthographe française", à paraître, dans un ouvrage collectif du CREDIF).
Qu'on le veuille ou non, l'acculturation confronte les enfants de migrants à de nouvelles valeurs symboliques dont ils ne maîtrisent pas à leur arrivée la signification. L'apprentissage passe par la maîtrise de cet ensemble, dont la norme orthographique n'est qu'une des composantes. Il ne s'agit pas de soustraire les enfants de migrants à ces normes, tant qu'elles sont en vigueur dans la société d'accueil: ce serait également les priver des pouvoirs que donne leur maîtrise. Le rôle de l'enseignant est de favoriser la négociation, d'aider les élèves à organiser leur propre système de valeurs et à appréhender l'orthographe comme un objet qu'ils peuvent eux-mêmes dominer, de manière à accèder à une maîtrise plus large de leur environnement. Si tout se passe comme si certaines difficultés des enfants de travailleurs migrants peuvent être interprétées comme une forme d'anomie, le remède n'est pas à chercher dans la soumission, mais dans l'autonomie. Et l'enseignement peut y contribuer.
Mais ceci ne peut s'effectuer qu'à l'intérieur d'un dialogue culturel, qui implique de la part des enseignants (relayés par l'école et la communauté qu'elle représente) une connaissance et une reconnaissance des représentations symboliques et des valeurs culturelles qui s'expriment dans les pays d'origine, dans les communautés immigrées comme dans la (les) communauté(s) indigène(s), et des rapports qu'entretiennent avec eux leurs élèves, migrants et autochtones.

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METHODOLOGY AS A LINK BETWEEN OBJECTIVES AND TEACHER PERSONALITY

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In the first part of this presentation, some current innovative trends in the Netherlands will be discussed. It will be made clear that although theories and research results may sustain their claims, they are the fruit of political and social choices. These choices are expressed in the objectives. In the second part, I will talk about the national discussion around objectives and I will tell how my Institute is trying to solve some of the problems. Eventually, I will introduce the dimension of teacher personality. Starting from a case-study, the notion of teacher personality will be extended and the interaction between objectives, methodology and teacher personality wil be made clear.

1 INNOVATIVE TRENDS IN THE NETHERLANDS

I will not talk about the experiments that have taken place in the University of Nijmegen because they are not representative of what happens in schools. I will talk about innovative trends in schools. Not that they are representative of the whole field, far from it, but they are just about all we have as far as school innovation goes.

1.1 *Mixed-ability teaching*

The strongest and oldest trend, considered by innovators as an ideal approach is the approach used in mixed-ability teaching. Of course, mixed- ability teaching by itself is no approach. It has become an approach because mixed ability teachers have crystallized their points of view and their didactics.

Why mixed-ability teaching?
This was a social need as well as a political decision. There were some didactical consequences: if you teach three foreign languages to pupils who are traditionally considered to be "less gifted", you have to reconsider your teaching approach.

What does mixed-ability teaching boil down to?
This approach can be summarized by stating some principles:
Principle one: Be functional in your teaching. What you teach must immediately serve communication. This means that you have to use themes and situations, not grammatical structures to order your syllabus.
Principle two: Don't worry about correctness. Let the message be defective as long as it is effective.
Principle three: Create a climate of safety. This is the only climate in which pupils will really learn.

Principle four: Let all activities you undertake develop sociability in the pupils.

How new is the mixed-ability teaching approach?
All this may not seem very new. The Council of Europe has been talking for a long time about functions, notions and situations. Wilkins' *Notional Syllabuses* are well known. Suggestopedia has been claiming all the time that there should be a climate of safety. It all happened at the same time but it seems not to have been particularly well coordinated.

What's behind the approach?
Can we say that the mixed ability approach is scientifically founded? To some extent, yes. There has been a study by Bogaards (1982) that shows how less gifted pupils can get good results as long as the teacher's expectations are high (the well known Pygmalion effect). There has been some evaluation of the mixed-ability approach. This did not bring very hard results. Quite normally so if you consider the large number of variables, most of them high-inference variables. All the same, the approach gives satisfaction to most pupils and is quite relevant. And that is where I want to get to: relevance. More than research results, relevance is the criterium to judge a new approach. The only way to be able to say whether an approach is relevant is to know about the objectives. Mixed-ability teachers make quite a fuss about objectives and have published them (see SLO 1981). Besides communicative objectives for modern languages, mixed-ability teachers want general educational objectives to be reflected in subject matter objectives. This is the only way to guarantee that these general objectives will be taken seriously. And this, in its turn, will guarantee a relevant approach.

1.2 *Participatory learning and orientation approaches*

These two innovative trends are closely related to the mixed-ability approach and will therefore be only shortly mentioned.

The so-called Participatory learning approach goes further still and states that social/emancipatory relevance is decisive in the choice of objectives. Furthermore, objectives should never be expressed as products but as processes. Deep personal involvement is the motor running the approach. How new is this? Well, Community Language Learning also stresses deep personal involvement. All new approaches claim an emancipatory function. And Krashen has been writing for some years about affective variables. Once again, it is not a matter of scientifical proof but of relevance to the objectives.

The orientation approach must take into account that pupils will have to make a choice between French and German at the end of the first year of secondary education. That is why the SLO developed, besides actual French and German syllabuses, a so-called language awareness syllabus. Language awareness is a very crazy approach because no actual foreign language is taught. Only information about languages is given and language learning strategies are discussed. New? Not in the least. The trend comes from England and there is a similar trend called Foreign Language Exploratory in the United States. No research. But happy teachers reporting a rise in motivation. Quite normally so. The approach is relevant in its context, thus ideal.

1.3 *The receptive way*

This approach is different from the others because it does not concern itself with objectives. It concerns itself with the psychology of learning and stresses receptive skills. It boils down to receptive vocabulary acquisition. New? Of course not. It is all based on Postovsky's theories and Asher's Total Phisical Response; and Krashen of course. Some research results seem to indicate that it would not be such a bad idea at least to start with receptive skills. But this will surprise nobody.

There is actually something else behind the approach: a language policy. Receptive teachers would like all Dutch pupils to learn 6 to 8 languages in secondary schools. Well, if this ever becomes the national Dutch policy, the receptive approach would certainly be the only relevant approach. Relevance again.

My point will be quite clear by now. Although scientific evidence is in most cases weak, we may say that all these approaches are ideal because they are relevant. Relevance cannot be expressed in figures. So, in order to know what is relevant, we must be able to describe objectives adequately.

2 OBJECTIVES

Discussions about objectives have been going on for quite a few years in the Netherlands (see Van Ek & Groot 1976; Oud-de Glas 1979; Van Els & Slagter 1982 and Buis & Oud-de Glas 1982).

It boiled down to describing objectives in terms of situations, functions and notions. The more of them, the higher the level. It all was quite a lot of work and quite a progress compared to the old, very vague objectives.

But it is not all that simple:
- Traditional schools went into a state of panic. For them correctness is very important and this system does not take it explicitly into account. Very angry articles appeared in professional magazines.
- Innovative teachers also became angry. You remember they want general educational objectives to be reflected in subject matter objectives. And the situational/functional/notional way does not take this into account.
- As to language awareness, it cannot be described by situational/functional/notional objectives.
- The system is also very difficult if you want only receptive objectives, although some way could be found.

So what? Well, the SLO is trying to make everybody happy by developing a system with which all possible objectives can be described. An outline of this system follows now.

Our first basic categories are quite old-fashioned. We borrowed them from Bloom, Hastings & Madaus (1971), but we filled them with some new ideas.

Cognitive objectives	*Affective objectives*	*Psychomotoric objectives*
knowledge about the language or the people speaking the language : vocabulary grammar rules culture literature	attitude of the student towards either her own possibilities, or towards the foreign language and its speakers, or towards the learning situation	communicative competence: skill, correctness, functions/notions/situations, social relevance

It seems this would cover all relevant variables, traditional ones as well as innovative ones. However, SLO policy wants objectives to apply not only to the student but to contents and didactics. Quite rightly so in our position. If you state what the student must know, do or feel, you most also state how this is to be achieved. So the approach, meaning contents and didactics, is nothing more and nothing less than one aspect of the objectives. This is how we introduced twice three new categories, all related to the first ones. So, the whole system would look like this:

	Cognitive	*Affective*	*Psychomotoric*
. *Student behaviour*	What does the student know?	What does the student feel?	What can the student do?
Contents	Which information does the material give?	Which affective aspects does the material stress?	Which possibilities of exercising does the material give?
Didactics	How is the information passed on?	How is affectivity used in the didactics?	How does training of skills take place?

The message is that if you ask a what-question, you must also ask a which-question, and if you ask a which-question, you should also ask a how-question. This system should help schools to discover quite a lot about themselves. What about stating affective objectives and never asking yourself if you really do something about it? What about stating communicative objectives and discovering that you are only training cognitive skills? If this sort of questions arise, then we will have done a good job.

The point of this second part was this: Approaches are not only related to objectives (as was argued in the first part), they are part of the objectives. Relevance can thus be described in terms of consistency, between the different parts which form the objectives.
One point still remains: if it is only a question of consistency, why is it that some teachers and some schools, while really concerned with objectives and trying their best to be consistent, do not necessarily come out as the best in research results? I will leave alone the very real problems involved with research methodology and I will propose a hypothesis by introducing the idea of teacher personality.

3 TEACHER PERSONALITY

3.1 *A case-study*

Knibbeler (1982) wanted to know which of the two new approaches Suggestopedia and Silent Way was the most effective. Effectiveness was measured in terms of communicative skills in French as well as affective dimensions. As expected, very little difference was registered in effect between the two approaches. Much more interesting was the fact that much larger differences, even significant differences, were found in effect between the teachers.

That is where Knibbeler's research ended and that is where I thought I should like to know more about these teachers. I picked out three teachers who were similar in many ways: three young women of about the same age, same educational backgrounds, same enthusiasm for new approaches. All three had volunteered to give two courses: one Silent Way, one Suggestopedia. They met regularly to plan their lessons, to choose the tasks they would be giving the students and they made quite a point of doing the same things at the same time. So, it was not to be expected that many differences would be found in what these teachers were actually doing, while it was quite obvious that there were differences in what kind of person they were.

I do know how dangerous studies of teacher personality can be and I know how little it has brought us when it was fashionable. I still went on, and I am glad I did, because this produced some very paradoxical data.

When you look at the results booked by these three teachers, you see that one of them consistently gets less effect than the other two. On the whole, we can state that A and B were better teachers than C. Maybe both A and B had some personality trait which C did not have? It turned out a little different. The report of an observant who was present during the lessons, the results booked by our teachers on a personality test and a questionnaire filled by common friends and colleagues of our teachers gave the following information about them:

Teacher A Very shy and easily disturbed
Socially involved
Very nice, a real good girl
Liked by many people

Teacher B Very self-assured, not easily disturbed
Socially maladjusted
Very energetic, powerful
Not liked much

Teacher C Very little information was passed on about C
Not many clearly defined personality traits

This suggests there is no particular personality trait that A and B would have and C would not have. But we may say tha A and B must have what we shall call a strongly featured personality. This is not the case with C. Whether this strongly featured personality is positive or negative is a question of interpretation and does not seem to be the point.

In this particular case, a strong personality of the teacher may have been connected in some way to better students results. We will certainly not jump to any conclusions, but let us see what happens if we retain this hypothesis of a strong personality.

3.2 A hypothesis

As far as individual teachers go, it could be that a strongly featured personality is a condition for stating definite objectives and being consistent with them. It could also be that such a personality influences the Pygmalion-effect. A strong belief can lift mountains. A wishy-washy belief may not lift as much. It is also possible that a negative Pygmalion-effect can destroy all the effects of consistency. This could explain why objective-minded and consistent teachers do not always achieve what they want to achieve.

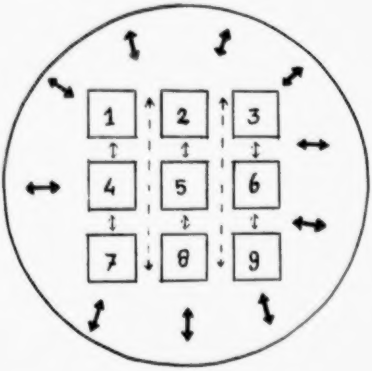
But one individual with a strongly featured personality does not get us very far. Even a group of individuals with strongly featured personalities does not necessarily make a strong team. So, we will have to extend the notion of teacher personality to languages department personality or school personality. It is not easy to define school personality, especially in the Netherlands where educational identity always has to be defined in terms of religion. I will try a very personal definition: a school with a strongly featured personality is a school that makes itself noticed. And what is a school that makes itself noticed? That is a school with very definite objectives (and thus a very definite approach). It is also a school that advertizes objectives (and thus approach), because if these remain unknown, they may as well not exist. This is nothing else than looking for a Hawthorne-effect. Everybody knows that very disturbing thing in all research about new approaches: whenever you announce that you are going to do something new, you can expect more effectiveness than if you do not announce anything. So, why not take the Hawthorne-effect for what it is, a powerful factor in effectiveness, and use it? Putting "new" on the package is only a way of drawing attention. Attention can also be drawn with traditional values, as long as they are being advertized.

My point in this third part was to introduce a new -maybe doubtful- variable that could be used in many ways. A strongly featured personality of the teacher or of the school can:

- be a condition for consistency within the objectives,
- explain individual successes,
- explain individual failures when related to a negative Pygmalion-effect,
- achieve a positive Hawthorne effect.

CONCLUSION

All elements which constitute this effectiveness-interaction-model have now been presented:



In the first part, I postulated an interaction between approaches (boxes 4 to 9) and objectives (boxes 1 to 3). I will call this the inductive interaction (small arrows).

In the second part, I stated that approaches were only one aspect of the objectives. Relevance can be described in terms of consistency between the different parts. I will call this the deductive interaction (dotted arrows).

In the third part, I argued that teacher or school personality (circle) was a missing factor of effectiveness. I will call this the conductive interaction (thick arrows).

What sort of messages does this model carry?

- For curriculum developers: when you are asked to develop a curriculum, make the people who asked for it aware of the consequences of their choices and of the consequences of not choosing what they did not choose.

- For teacher trainers: train the personality of your students and make them aware of their Pygmalion power.

- For schools: build your identity by taking into account all aspects of objectives. Advertize.

- For teachers: do not let anybody sell you any method until you are sure it tallies with your objectives. If you like the method, but do not use it because it would not be relevant with your objectives, then maybe there is something wrong with your objectives. Talk it over with your colleagues to build up school identity.

There are of course a lot of very important things that this model does not cover. There are models with more than fifty variables. Take for instance the student: aptitude-treatment-interaction research is still trying to fit her in. Take the horizontal relations between the boxes: this would be something for research. Take the role of the Ministry of Education: is it only one of the strong personalities at a macro-level or is it the maker or breaker of the whole system? Take test developers: are they only the technical helps that make objectives measurable, or have their techniques a decisive influence on the objectives?

So many problems remain to be solved. This model gives some conditions which may not be sufficient but which are certainly necessary if we are looking for an "ideal" approach.

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LEARNERS' CHARACTERISTICS AND INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

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0 - INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades, FL instruction has gone through much experimentation and many teaching methods have been tried, all with some degree of success, causing FL teachers to switch from one method to another and to look like chickens running after the chicken which has found a new worm. Yet, in spite of all the money spent on teaching foreign languages and even, at times, on developing innovative approaches, it would be difficult to assert that all is well in the field. The purpose of this paper is, first, to show why there cannot be any universal method to teach all foreign languages to all individual learners and, second, to suggest that the greatest flaw in foreign language teaching lies in the fact that not enough attention has been given to the individual learner and to his place in the tripartite instructional system consisting of goals, learners' characteristics and learning strategies. The general philosophy underlying my proposal is that learning a new linguistic and cultural behaviour is one of the most difficult endeavours any individual may undertake. Therefore, before assigning anyone such a formidable task, one must know whether the learner's characteristics are compatible with the task to be performed and, if they are, each learner must then be provided with the best appropriate learning tool in a truly individualized instructional system. In other words, to achieve his/her highest potential, each individual should be given the opportunity to study the culture, the language and the field which require the skills for which his/her aptitudes, abilities and various characteristics predict the highest probability of success.

1 - WHY VARIOUS FL TEACHING METHODS FAIL TO REACH MANY STUDENTS

1.1 *Grammar-Translation*

Research has shown that translators possess, at least, a good immediate memory and good divergent thinking faculties which enable them to paraphrase, i.e. to associate paradigmatically diverse forms representing the same meaning. In addition, grammarians exhibit superior syntagmatic association aptitudes. Obviously, not every language learner is endowed with all these aptitudes and, consequently, grammar-translation is not for everyone.

1.2 *Audio-Lingual Techniques*

Because grammar-translation concentrated on reading and writing skills, it did not prepare students to speak a FL. With increased international person to person contacts, it became necessary to teach the listening and speaking skills. This need led to the creation of audio-lingual techniques. Proponents of these techniques claimed that, finally, everyone could learn any foreign language because, instead of describing or talking about the language, the learner would be practicing the language through stimulus-response- confirmation exercises which would lead to the mastery of performance objectives through multiple steps programmed from simple to complex tasks. One important element, however, was forgotten: that of the learner's personality and interest. Not only did boredom set in, caused by the tediousness of the mechanistic programs, but some anxiety developed among introverts afraid to exteriorize and to apply their newly acquired knowledge.

1.3 *Direct Method*

One of the oldest approaches, possibly as old as, if not older than, grammar-translation, was revived because it was more human than the ALT and because it gave greater importance to the teacher. The entire instruction was in the foreign language; and new lexical or grammatical information was presented through analogies, paraphrases and good acting on the part of the imaginative teacher. Unfortunately, two major problems were generally overlooked: how to find analogies which would be meaningful to all students in a given classroom, and how to make sure that all students really understood the explanation given by the teacher.

1.4 *Listening Approaches*

Because some people are better listeners than speakers, some concerned educators experimented with listening approaches and reported great success. Instead of being forced to demonstrate orally their newly acquired linguistic knowledge, students were encouraged, if not coerced, to remain silent for many weeks of instruction until their brain became so to speak saturated with the new information and they felt a craving to speak out. Gone was the anxiety of the introverts, afraid of public failure and criticism; but a new group of learners developed frustration and discouragements: the "spontaneous talkers" deprived of the opportunity to show off their knowledge, their intelligence. For the sake of one group, another was being sacrificed.

1.5 *Suggestopedia*

Possibly the most successful cure for anxiety has been suggestopedia. Through relaxation exercises and other psychological manipulation of the learning environment, this approach reduces the learners' apprehension and resistance to the learning of a new linguistic, and possibly cultural, behaviour to such a large extent that Lozanov and other practitioners have reported a considerable degree of success both in the quantity and the quality of language mastered by their students. It seems clear, however, that eliminating inhibition cannot replace various psycholinguistic or other deficiencies. Consequently, suggestopedia can only be a complementary approach used in the presentation of materials but not a method to construct a program to be presented.

1.6 *Natural Approaches*

Some of the strongest criticism directed against most methods and approaches mentioned above is that they do not utilize authentic, meaningful, relevant situations and that a more serious attempt should be made to present cultural and linguistic material in a manner approximating that which prevails in a natural environment in which the learner would be immersed and which s/he would discover progressively in his/her own manner. Several variants of natural approach have been developed independently. Again, they have been successful but mostly with those whom I shall call "natural learners". To the possible question of "who is not a natural learner?" I'll answer: "anyone who left with his own natural learning strategies will not learn a new language after several years of total immersion". I think we all know of such cases among immigrants in any number of countries.

1.7 *Eclectic Methods*

Because they have noted that not every individual learns in the same manner, some FL teachers have chosen to be "eclectic". They do not blindly adhere to any single method but rather try to facilitate each student's learning through a pot pourri of approaches and methods which is bound to coincide at times with the learning style(s) and strategies of each member of the group. This is a laudable attempt but I contend that it would be better yet to help each learner at all times and not only sometimes. The remainder of this paper will show how it can be done.

2 - IDENTIFYING LEARNERS' CHARACTERISTICS

Whenever a task has to be done in a well-run commercial or industrial enterprise, the good manager recruits the best qualified person(s) to perform it. In some countries, vocational testing is even used to orient young people toward the field for which they have the greatest natural inclination and in which they have the best chances to succeed. This professional orientation is also being used to retrain other people who for a variety of reasons may need to be "recycled". Unfortunately, this preliminary assessment of each individual learner is not done in the field of FL teaching. As I said in another paper (Niedzielski 1983), it is most important to select the right student for the right job. Instead of teaching everyone in the same manner, it would be much preferable to assess each individual's unique background in order to help him/her select the right purpose for the study of the FL and utilize the most efficient learning strategy.

Several interesting studies were conducted in Poland during the last decade to establish correlations existing between students' psychological and sociocultural make-up and their success in higher studies (cf. Lewowicki 1975; Maszczyk 1976). Two basic conclusions were reached: 1) that students will succeed in a particular field of university study if they start with a particular background, and 2) that more emphasis should be placed at all levels of schooling on teaching the learners how to learn rather than teaching them the facts or specific information. However, these most practical and enlightening studies were conducted in the fields of history, psychology and Polish language and literature. Comparable research has been conducted in FL teaching in other countries but it has generally been either misdirected or more limited in scope because of a rather common belief that there is a general language learning aptitude. Fortunately, particular linguistic aptitudes have been analyzed and correlated with linguistic achievement in a FL by several researchers such as Papalia & Zampogna (1970, 1974) and Jacobsen & Imhoof (1974) in the US, Nemetz-Robinson (1975) in Australia, Murakami (1974) in Japan and myself in Poland (1973, 1975, 1976 a & b). Generally, these studies were on the right track because they suggested the importance of adapting the teaching strategy to the individual learner's characteristics. Papalia even published a very useful book called *Learner-Centered Language Teaching* (1976).

Another linguist, Roulet, wrote for the Fédération Internationale des Professeurs a review of some findings by sociolinguists, psycholinguists and methodologists on the necessity to individualize FL instructional systems in function of needs, aptitudes and learning strategies of every individual learner. However, he deplores that we don't know enough about various learning strategies because "il est très difficile de recueillir des informations sur la manière dont un individu apprend une langue, car on touche là des processus mentaux qui échappent à une observation directe" (Roulet 1977: 24). Notwithstanding this real difficulty reported by Roulet, it is quite possible to measure covert characteristics through overt behaviour. For instance, discrete and educationally significant psycholinguistic abilities can be evaluated with the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (Kirk et al. 1968) or a modified version of it, as reported in a MA thesis by a student of English at the university of Krakow (Politowska 1977). Other students of mine in the same English institute have analyzed other learners' characteristics--such as physiological, psychological and socio-cultural--in order to correlate them with learning strategies and success in FL learning. Others yet have developed special tests to determine whether a prospective university student of English possesses the basic background, aptitudes and attitudes necessary to become an English teacher, a scholar, a translator, a journalist or a tour guide. Learning strategies of about one hundred secondary school or university students of English were also reported in 1977 in another MA thesis written at the same university of Krakow by another student of mine, Anna Slifierz, under the title "Some Language Learning Strategies used by Learners of English as a Second Language".

3 - SETTING UP A SPECIAL PURPOSE INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM BASED ON LEARNERS' CHARACTERISTICS AND THEIR LEARNING STRATEGIES

3.1 *Research*

In the review article mentioned above, Roulet stated that the only way to improve the teaching of a second language is to base it on language needs, learners' attitudes and motivations, as well as on learning strategies. The research conducted in Krakow by my students gives support to this recommendation for it has indicated that, just like in any other field, the most successful FL learners are those who are interested in the subject and are endowed with the abilities necessary to master it. On strength of this evidence, I have tried for the last ten years to discover my students' background and make-up, as well as their learning strategies, in order not to teach against currents--i.e. against their personality--but rather to utilize their high aptitudes, to improve their low aptitudes and to avoid frustrating them through subjecting them to harmful and inefficient techniques requiring natural abilities which they do not possess at all.

3.2 *Application*

3.2.1 *French Phonetics at the University of Hawaii*

Both acoustic and articulatory phonetics, indispensable to correct one's pronunciation systematically, are learned individually by students. After an initial personal interview designed to learn as much as possible about each student's characteristics and motivations, I provide them with various oral and visual materials--some explanations and bits of advice are projects written by previous students because some students tend to understand or trust their "fellows" better than their teachers. I also assign them various tasks to perform individually. Among other things, they keep a diary of their own efforts in the language laboratories, at home or anywhere else. They report their problems, solutions, failures and successes; and we discuss all these in class, in my office or in the cafeteria. The constant attention they must give to the description of practical, concrete detail in their learning strategies trains them to be assiduous, careful, and accurate. It also teaches them how to study on their own, which is most important because as I said in my abstract: "if you teach people how to learn languages, they'll tend to learn languages all their lives".

3.2.2 *French Composition at the University of Hawaii and English Composition at the University of Burundi*

Having noted the extreme complexity of good writing, I have tried to break up the task into as many elements as possible: according to purpose, organization and techniques (Niedzielski 1972 a & b, 1977). Among special purposes, I have recognized the writing of reports, summaries, business letters, personal letters, and short stories. Organization is drilled through outline recognition of well written texts and outline writing in imitation of texts previously analyzed. Techniques emphasize graphic, visual representation of situations, pastiche writing, paraphrasing, and utilization of various cohesive ties. Students choose individually among all these purposes and objectives and progress from any one to any other as soon as they perform at a level judged satisfactory both by them and myself. In addition, in my last composition courses at the University of Burundi, students began with some graded controlled composition exercises and I analyzed their errors in order to be able to recommend to each one of them those objectives which might be of more value and, in some cases, some remedial grammar exercises.

3.2.3 *French Conversation at the University of Hawaii and English Conversation at the Bujumbura English Club*

Whenever one is teaching conversational skills, topics to be discussed should be chosen by students themselves to ensure greater interest and participation; techniques should be based on oral activities present in the native culture of the students; kinesics and proxemics should be explained, observed and practiced; individual talents--such as acting, stage directing or singing--should be utilized. Since part of the time in a conversation is spent on speaking and part of the remainder on listening, special exercises should be devised to help students become more proficient in both types of activities. I presented at the AILA convention in 1981 some of the exercises I have created for the teaching of Natural Speech Understanding. They help students to perceive, associate, recognize and remember utterances and discourse presented to them through various media like videotapes over which they have control, films which they cannot stop nor rewind but which still offer them visual supports, tape recordings of various speech situations, events, acts and styles recorded at various speeds, with more and more interlocutors and with greater and greater static noise or distortion. The most important feature that most of these exercises have in common is that they teach students a method to approach various difficulties. Thus, the learning takes place outside of class and will, in many cases, continue throughout the students' lifetime.

4 - CONCLUSION

We have considered language learning as a set of activities performed by individuals in the process of acquiring a new linguistic and/or cultural behaviour. Three corollaries can be derived from this postulate.

4.1 *Determining Purposes and Objectives*

To be productive and meaningful, this behaviour must be communicative and/or useful to a specific speech community. Therefore, all FL instructional systems should be teleological, i.e. goal oriented--like any human activity, as has been demonstrated by the great social psychologist Alfred Adler and his followers. All language courses should thus be conceived as existing for special purposes. Such special purposes may be academic, scientific, technical or others. What the term really means is that there exists an analysis of specific vocational tasks that the performer must control. Consequently, the ideal for a school system is to determine present needs of society and to predict future ones. Once these needs have been recognized, special tasks--or terminal activities--meeting these needs should be defined, and tools--or learning activities--to perform these tasks described.

4.2 *Vocational Testing*

When purposes, tasks and tools are defined, a serious search for adequate man power or brain power--the students--may begin. In other words, recruiting or enrollment is conducted through vocational testing. First of all, each individual candidate for a specific field of study will be evaluated in order to predict his/her probability of success and, possibly, to recommend another field. This is necessarily so because not everyone is endowed with all the ideal physical, physiological, psychological, psycholinguistic and sociocultural characteristics necessary to succeed in any given field. For instance, not every FL teacher can be a simultaneous interpreter.

4.3 *Individualizing Instruction*

Once a student has been admitted to a special purpose language course on the basis of his/her background--motivation, individual characteristics and previous preparation--s/he must be provided with the right tools. The teacher has a rich assortment of approaches ready to be adapted and a large stock of audio-visual aids from which, with the guidance of the teacher, each student can choose. Each learner's characteristics are matched with one or more teaching strategies which become his/her learning strategies. Instead of a hit and run approach, the individual student follows a pleasant and efficient path to success because the formula to success is still:

INTEREST + ABILITIES -- SUCCESS -- SKILLS + INTEREST -- SUCCESS

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ROUND TABLE REPORT

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At the conclusion of the 15th AIMAV Colloquium on New Approaches in Foreign Language Methodology held at the University of Nijmegen (The Netherlands) from September 6 to 9, 1983, a round table was held to evaluate the ideas presented and developed during the colloquium. The round table began at 2:30 p.m. on Friday, September 9, and continued for approximately two hours in lecture-theatre 1 of the Collegezalencomplex. Panel participants were: E. Milstein (Israel); R. Young (France); J. Rardin (U.S.A.); J. Fox (Great Britain); A. Yakut (Germany); C. Schmid (U.S.A.); M. Bayuk (U.S.A.); L. Machado de Andrade (Brazil).
Three persons were subsequently asked to express their views as panel members as the round table progressed, viz. D. Schuster (U.S.A.); K. Markowski (France); M. Nouwen-San Giorgi (The Netherlands). W. Decoo (Belgium) served as chairman of the panel discussion and J. Bancroft (Canada) as reporter.

Advocates of the various approaches presented during the colloquium were to discuss the pros and cons of their theories and to provide answers to the following questions: 1) what is the scientific basis of the appropriate theories? 2) how can the new methods be applied on a larger scale? While it could be argued that not all of the panel members addressed themselves to the questions at hand, a rich variety of views was expressed by one and all and the general disscussion which followed the panel members' presentations proved to be both lively and informative.

The first panel speaker, A. Yakut from West Germany, presented what he termed was a "sentimental-scientific" point of view. Regretting that, in his opinion, the colloquium had spent too much time discussing "technical problems", he said that more time and attention should have been accorded to the social functions of language and, in particular, to the special needs of disadvantaged immigrant families. The role of the language teacher, in Yakut's opinion, is to contribute to social peace and to incarnate a social consciousness opposing injustice and discrimination.

J. Fox from Great Britain expressed the opinion that it was not possible to evaluate the scientific basis of the various new language theories presented but he praised the "eclecticism" of the colloquium and said that there were useful elements in diverse and different methods. Fox expressed his belief in a general humanistic set of attitudes as well as in learner centredness. Insofar as new trends in language instruction are concerned, computers, in particular, may be termed student-centred in that they provide the student with a great deal of freedom. Even in computer-assisted instruction, however, the very important role of the teacher should not be overlooked.

R. Young (France) stated that the scientific evaluation of the new methods under discussion posed a big problem. Were the evaluations being conducted in a scientific manner or merely in accordance with the personal views of those using the methods? Young believes that a model of man is inherent in any method being used and that one must recognize the model before one can evaluate it. In Young's opinion, all the methods must be compared and contrasted and evaluated together in a coherent way. Young expressed particular interest in W. Knibbeler's work in the Silent Way and in his evaluation procedures.

The fourth speaker, C. Schmid (U.S.A.), raised three questions that he believed should be answered before evaluation procedures can begin: 1) how can we test without knowing the goals, outcomes, probable results? 2) how does one know he has reached a given outcome (through tests, observations)? 3) what would it take to get that outcome? Schmid spoke briefly about Suggestopedia and then at somewhat greater length on Neuro-Linguistic Programming which, since each individual learns differently, provides a convenient model for analysing the internal processes of the learner.

E. Milstein (Israel) believes that the communicative approach increases student involvement and outlined a number of principles that lie behind communicative approaches, such as 1) authentic materials; 2) lack of rigid sequencing; 3) variety of materials. Milstein, however, is in favour of eclecticism and realizes that the communicative approach -though its merits are great- is not the only one that can or should be used in language teaching.

J. Rardin (U.S.A.) addressed herself to the issues at hand by expressing the view that, while more time was needed for the scientific evaluation of such "humanistic" approaches as had been presented during the colloquium, nonetheless we were "on the threshold" of such an evaluation. She said that "games can be played with statistics", although she advocated that the empirical method should be used where it can properly be used. Regarding the Counseling-Learning approach to community language learning, Rardin stated that empirical research proving the validity of this approach has been provided by a number of Ph.D. theses and that, in addition, the value of the method has been established through experience, common sense and educational philosophy. Rardin believes that teacher commitment is needed for CLL and similar humanistic approaches; otherwise, the method in question becomes a mere abstraction.

According to M. Bayuk (U.S.A.), certain of the methods discussed during the colloquium depend upon active teacher participation whereas others view the teacher as somewhat "passive", i.e., a mediator. It is her opinion that the teacher chooses his method according to his personality. Bayuk is in favour of an expanded audio-lingual approach and a modified form of Suggestopedia, although she recognizes that other methods contain very positive elements. She discussed the tests that have been conducted and that have been written up in the professional literature proving the superiority of the components of Suggestopedia and also praised the work of W. Decoo in computer-assisted language instruction.

L. Machado de Andrade (Brazil) provided what he termed a "short conclusion" to the panel members' presentations and came out strongly in favour of humanistic education (as opposed to dehumanizing statistics) and different learning styles, e.g., emotional, kinesthetic , muscular. In education in general and in foreign language learning, in particular, human potential must be harnassed, according to Machado de Andrade. No scientific theory can really explain how we learn.

After a short period of questions directed at L. Machado de Andrade who was obliged to leave the meeting early because he had to catch a plane to Rio de Janeiro, three members of the original second panel were called upon to express their views.

D. Schuster (U.S.A.) stated that, in answer to the first question (viz. what is the scientific basis of the new theories?), limited scientific evidence is available in the professional literature. Schuster particularly commended W. Knibbeler for his pioneering work in comparing Suggestopedia with the Silent Way. He also made a number of recommendations: 1) superior teaching methods should be analyzed experimentally for what makes them superior; 2) as a complement to (1), theoretical analyses should be conducted of the new teaching methods to explore why they work (as an example, J. Bancroft's analysis of five "superior" teaching methods at the present colloquium was cited); 3) a synthetic and practical approach is needed so that the best elements of different methods can be combined into an even better method. (According to Schuster, methods which should be considered include: Suggestopedia; the Silent Way; Fanselow's analytical response grid; Niedzielski's individualized instruction; Graham's jazz chants; Total Physical Response Strategy; Confluent Education; Community Language Learning).

K. Markowski (France) expressed the belief that the teacher is an artisan, being neither artist nor scientist, and that the student's thoughts and feelings should be taken into account in the evaluation of a new language teaching method. Markowski particularly commended W. Knibbeler's work and stated that more experiments were needed for the obtaining of scientific data.

M. Nouwen-San Giorgi (The Netherlands) was in favour of creativity and the "explorative-creative way" and opposed to the idea, expressed by M. Bayuk, that, in some methods, the teacher is "passive". (The teacher is never passive, in Nouwen-San Giorgi's opinion). Nouwen-San Giorgi believes that the new methods can and should be applied on a larger scale.

The open discussion which followed the panel members' presentations centred on some seven issues, viz. 1) do different styles of learning make for different styles of teaching? 2) can we use subjective evaluations (e.g., from students) as "scientific" evidence when evaluating the new approaches? (D. Schuster replied that affective tests exist for quantifying subjective judgements); 3) the questions that were supposed to have been addressed by the panel members were not answered; 4) while the audio-lingual method is still in vogue, there is a great need for a variety of approaches that can be adapted to different student learning styles; 5) more sessions at the colloquium should have been devoted to practice as well as theory; 6) what had we learned from the colloquium or, in H.Z. Niedzielski's words, was everyone returning home with his own perfect method? 7) should we be looking for a universal method or, rather, a method best suited to the culture or society of the students?

It is the view of this reporter that, while all the panel members and members of the audience made interesting contributions to the discussion, the best recommendations for further research in the area of new approaches to foreign language methodology came from D. Schuster (U.S.A.) (This is probably because Professor Schuster is, among other things, a trained research phsychologist). Reorganizing and summing up Schuster's recommendations, we get the following:

1) New teaching methods should each be analyzed experimentally in order to determine the components that make each of them work in practice;

2) More comparative studies are needed, following along the lines of W. Knibbeler's pioneering comparisons of Suggestopedia and the Silent Way;

3) Theoretical analyses should be done of the new teaching methods so that hypotheses can be presented of how and why they work;

4) A synthetic and practical approach is needed in which the best experimental and theoretical elements of different "superior" methods are combined into an even better method.

The 15th AIMAV Colloquium on New Approaches in Foreign Language Methodology has shown that a promising beginning has already been made along the lines of Professor Schuster's recommendations.

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